

The Social Studies

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Continuing The Historical Outlook

NOVEMBER, 1951

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Contents

As the Editor Sees It	Leonard B. Irwin	282
The Teacher and the Social Studies: The Social Studies		
Teacher and Sociology	Ralph A. Brown and Wayne C. Neely	283
The Teaching of Current Events and American History	J. Madison Gathany	289
Soviet Membership in the U. N.	E. W. Thornton	293
World History by Units for Secondary Schools	Winifred B. Foster	296
Topic T17. Jacksonian Era, 1829-1841	Morris Wolf	303
America Isn't a Self-Sufficient Nation by Any Means	John R. Craf	307
The Teachers' Page	Hyman M. Boodish	310
Visual and Other Aids	Irwin A. Eckhauser	313
News and Comment	R. T. Solis-Cohen	316
Book Reviews and Book Notes	David W. Harr	319
Current Publications Received		327

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As the Editor Sees it

The drug stores and news stands are filled with paper-backed novels whose covers make the very most of the heroine's charms. The contents may include mayhem and murder, torrid or tawdry romance, or even the classics. But as a group they comprise what is called "escape literature,"—that is, light reading intended to take the reader out of his troubled world into another where all the worries belong to someone else. Most of us use some form of escape reading occasionally; a well-written mystery or adventure yarn is often as good as a tonic.

With all due deference to Nero Wolfe and Perry Mason, we would like to present the case for another kind of escape literature. It is perhaps a special taste that would not appeal to everyone but it gains savor by that very fact. We refer to historical reading,—not random or indiscriminate reading that has no unity or purpose, but the concentration on some particular period and area of the past. The less closely the chosen subject is connected with modern America, the better it serves its purpose.

What can the modern novelist offer as escapism that can compare with the pleasure of going back into the past and becoming part of it? One has all the advantages and none of the shortcomings of living in a real world. We can pick our friends as we like; we can walk the streets of an olden city, seeing the bustle about us, but in perfect safety and obscurity,—a sort of invisible man. We can enter into the tragedies, the comedies and the daily affairs of the great and small alike, yet knowing happily that nothing they do can affect our own future any more. We watch the struggles of kings, ministers and armies, but with none of the dread and foreboding that our daily paper brings us with its accounts of today's events; for after all, we know how the *other* story ended!

The more we read of our chosen "escape world" the more real and fascinating it becomes. The perusal of letters, diaries, newspapers, maps, pamphlets, biographies and anything else available builds up for us a sense of familiarity. Minor personalities acquire full dimension; streets and buildings develop character; fads and fashions come to life again. Suppose our choice of period is Eighteenth Century England, that glorious era of Sam Johnson and Boswell, of Garrick and Goldsmith, of Horace Walpole, Thomas Rowlandson and Pope. We learn to be at home at Strawberry Hill, at Ranelagh or in Boodle's. We know the price of a sedan-chair to the theatre, the kind of wine we should drink at the White Hart, or where to go to buy a copy of Hogarth's latest cartoon. We travel by coach on the Great North Road, or sit at table with Johnson, Boszy and Mrs. Thrale. We can listen to the bitter satire of Hervey or play cards with Sarah Marlborough; we can even visit Bedlam or join the afternoon fashion parade in the Green Park. The more we read, the more thoroughly we become a part of our past world. We escape into it at will, constantly finding new places and old friends, yet are always able to leave it before its sorrows touch us. This is the beauty of historical escape reading. The world of the novel is limited by the author's imagination and literary skill, but the re-creation of a real era of the past has no limits. Its fascination grows and feeds upon itself.

It is often true that the most satisfying hobby is one that is allied to our vocation. We recommend to the social studies teacher the "adoption" of a bit of the past. Study it, immerse yourself in it, live in it. It will combine all the opportunities for thrills that come to any collector or armchair detective, and best of all, provide a new world to live in where all your troubles are behind you.

The Social Studies

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The Teacher and the Social Studies

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There seems to be no question but that most social studies teachers at the junior and senior high school levels have done the bulk of their work in the field of history. At least under present curriculum conditions this would seem desirable, since a large part of the content in social studies courses between grades seven and twelve is historical in substance.

Good teaching, however, demands some knowledge of the other social studies. The teacher of American history, for example, unless he understands the geography of our country, the great influence of natural forces on the growth of industry and even on social and economic attitudes, is badly handicapped. Or how could such a teacher make understandable the social consequences of industrialization without some knowledge of sociology? Equally difficult would be the task of a world history teacher who tried to discuss the causes of World War II without a background in economics.

While some knowledge of political science and anthropology, psychology, geography, economics and sociology are desirable for all social studies teachers, such information and understanding would seem especially necessary for the teacher of the problems course. Under various titles, such as Problems of American Democracy, Problems of Democracy, Modern Problems, Problems of Society or Social Problems, this course usually appears in the twelfth

year. Many educators believe that in terms of democratic citizenship it is the single most important social studies course.

That few social studies teachers are adequately prepared in these sometimes-considered marginal fields, and that some facility in these areas is a *must* for good social studies teaching, seem apparent. It is equally true that all teachers find it easier to maintain a previously acquired facility than to acquire new ones. Thus the social studies teacher with historical training is able to keep up-to-date with new historical materials more pleasantly and easily than he can acquire a proficiency in, let us say, cultural anthropology.

With these thoughts in mind the present writer has approached qualified people in various areas of the social studies, requesting from each of them an article that would emphasize ideas and new materials in his particular field of interest. In each case this writer has added, arranged and edited in terms of his own junior and senior high school teaching experience—especially in terms of his experience at the twelfth-year level.

The first article is largely the work of Dr. Wayne C. Neely, Professor of Sociology at Hood College in Frederick, Maryland. Dr. Neely has had many years of teaching experience, both at the high school and college level. Other articles in this series will appear in later issues.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER AND SOCIOLOGY

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Sociology is seldom taught in today's high school. Few social studies teachers, at the junior and senior high school level, have had much training in sociology. Yet every such teacher should have a good basic knowledge of sociology and should be familiar with some of the recent literature in the field.

Such a statement needs examination and substantiation; why should every social studies teacher in the junior or senior high school have a good basic knowledge of sociology and be familiar with recent literature in the field?

In the first place (and this reason might be said to apply to all teachers) the statement is true because the social studies teacher is a member of the community in which he teaches. The emphasis on the community-centered school is predicated upon the teacher's ability to understand his community: its resources, its social attitudes and customs; its ways of thinking. Sociological emphasis at the present time, as indicated below, is strong in the area of the community.

Closely coupled to the increasing attention to the community as a laboratory is the role of the teacher as an agent for better school-community relations. In a period when, as was so convincingly presented at last summer's meeting of the N.E.A., the public school is under the increasingly heavy and dangerous fire of unscrupulous enemies, it behooves all school people to work diligently at the construction of public understanding and approval. Again, much of the literature suggested below can be of help in the understanding upon which such approval can be developed.

Moving into the area of subject matter content, we find equally valid reasons for an emphasis on sociological understanding on the part of social studies teachers. The social studies teacher more than any of his colleagues treats with social phenomena. Think, for example, of the American history teacher explaining, in either the eighth or the eleventh grade, the division of colonists into Tory and Patriot forces in 1775 and 1776; the teacher of world

history discussing causes of the rise of Nazism in Germany in the late 1920's and early 1930's; or the ninth grade teacher examining the operation of pressure groups in democratic government. Such situations are frequently confronting the social studies teacher and they can be handled meaningfully only as the teacher has an understanding of social forces and influences.

In the twelfth-year problems course, the teacher will find a knowledge of sociology to be indispensable to good teaching. Few teachers of this course, regardless of the title which may be used in their system or state, fail to consider such topics as minority problems, unemployment and social security, geriatrics, rural social agencies, recreational problems of an industrial society, or population trends. For any of these, naturally, knowledge of elementary social theory and familiarity with applicable materials are essential.

It is the purpose of this article to set forth some basic sociological concepts that should be a part of the academic equipment of every teacher of social studies, and to explore some of the recent literature by which a teacher or a teacher-in-training might acquire such proficiency.

Two limitations appear at the outset. One is that the teacher should not worry too much about whether sociology is a "science" or not. The arguments on this point that often occur in graduate schools have one or two deleterious effects: (1) they scare some young teachers and students, because of the implied erudition and technicalities of methodology, or (2) they so impress the teacher that he feels that he must impart to his students on the high school level an understanding of these matters, and he thus confuses the students or at best omits some real contributions that sociology could make. The second limitation is that a discussion such as is here undertaken can deal with only a few of the concepts that teachers of social studies find useful.

SOCIAL GROUPS

Sociology is most simply defined as the study of *social groups*. There are several classifications of social groups that sociologists have found particularly useful, and it may be well for the teacher to start his consideration of sociological concepts here. Among these are the *primary groups*, exemplified by the family, the children's play group, the adolescent gang, the clique, and the comradeship, in which the basic characteristic is the personal intimacy of the relationship. In contrast are *secondary groups*, those characterized by special interests, segmental and fleeting contacts, more formal organization, and purposive behavior.

Another group classification consists of *in-groups* and *out-groups*, the former including any group with which one is identified, and the latter any group toward which one feels suspicious or hostile. Here we find the basis of much cooperation, on the one hand, and of conflict, on the other. "My" home town, "my" school, "my" race, "my" country are commonly set off against "theirs"—to the complication of community, school, economic, political, and of course international relations.

Still another way to look at groups is to determine whether they are made up of members from one or closely similar classes—*horizontal groups*; or of members who represent the whole cross-section of the community—*vertical groups*. The students in a fashionable private school constitute a horizontal group (all drawn from the same social level), as do those in a remote Negro sharecropping area. The students in a large central high school in a city of 25,000 constitute a vertical group (drawn from varied and diverse social levels).

Sociologists have also identified *conflict groups* and *accommodation groups*. Criminal gangs, labor unions, political parties, and militant race-conscious groups illustrate the former, while denominations, classes and castes, and political states illustrate the latter. The conflict group is militant, determined to fight for its specific and narrowly specified objectives, and, in fact, is held together by the actual or threatened conflict in relations with other groups. The accommodation group has made its peace with the world, acquired a considerable measure of social acceptance and

respectability, and has become more or less fully incorporated into the general structure of the society.

These concepts, as all the others, are useless if regarded merely as jargon, or as an exercise in taxonomy. But they are tools that can be brought to bear in the analysis of all sorts of situations and problems, both in the school and on the outside. The trend of society has been away from the primary group—away from familial, neighborhood, and localistic organizations, toward great and involved complexities of urbanized, industrialized, and secularized relationships of an impersonal, secondary group character. The in-group, with its stereotype of itself and the out-group, must be understood if means are to be found for harmonious social living, both near at hand and internationally. The horizontal group concept lends itself to use in understanding much of the class struggle, the revolt of small and backward nations, the shift of occupations, and other processes of a revolutionary character. The conflict group will almost always be found playing a vital role in social movements—for example, in the labor movement, the movement for women's rights, the rise of political parties, and many others.

Despite the fact that sociology is basically the study of groups, we are lacking good monographic studies at this point. Elementary textbooks usually give considerable attention to the topic, but other references are scattered. The late Professor Dwight Sanderson probably went as far as anyone in the analysis of groups, but his work is available only in articles.¹ E. E. Eubank in his book *The Concepts of Sociology*² presents a good deal of material on this point, as on numerous others of a theoretical nature.

SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

As one moves on to further basic concepts, he next comes to *social institutions*. The life of a society is organized around its major institutions,—the family, government, religion, economic institutions and so on. These are more than groups: they are complex systems of social organization through which the major functions of human beings in society are carried out. Institutions may be studied in two ways: first, giving to each institution more or less discrete consideration, which though systematized may

be simply a study of its contemporary functions and problems; and second, a systematic analysis of institutions as such—their organization, functions, interrelationships, changes, and so on. Most sociology and social studies texts, both high school and college, deal with institutions in the first fashion, some of them quite effectively. The best approach to the second method is made in J. O. Hertzler's *Social Institutions*.³ L. V. Ballard's *Social Institutions*⁴ falls somewhere in between.

CULTURE

The next basic concept that teachers should find important is *culture*. Culture here means not the manners, art, literature, and the aesthetic traits of a "refined" person, but the sum total of man-made phenomena, both material and non-material, that human beings create to solve their problems and that they transmit by a learning process. This cultural system obviously differs among different peoples (the French and the Chinese, for example), and also among various categories of people within a society. There are, in other words, "sub-cultures," certainly in the complex societies. A quick survey of our own yields numerous pertinent examples. There are regional sub-cultures—the South or the Middle West; the sub-cultures of racial and ethnic groups—the Negro, the Amish, the Italian-Americans, or the Chinese-Americans; the sub-cultures of social classes, of religious groups, of occupational groups, and of many others. The culture is the group's "way of life"; its essence is the inner meanings of the group's possessions, activities and organizations—that is, the *values* of the society. Groups have not only their characteristic material possessions—tools, weapons, utensils, art objects, etc., but, more important, their different *folkways* and *mores*—the ways of doing things that are considered by the group as so necessary to its well-being that any deviation is looked upon as morally bad.

The culture of a society obviously gives it its essential character, its *ethos*, and thus furnishes clues to the understanding of the society as a whole. Cultural comparisons do much to promote international understanding of the society as a whole, and have been of immeasurable importance in war and post-war military and governmental policies as we have come into contact with other peoples.

The understanding of the *person* in our own and other societies is another product of the study of culture. The *person* and the *personality structure*, are, incidentally, concepts of great importance in sociology; they fall within the field of social psychology, an area where sociology and psychology meet. More and more it is coming to be realized that the individual with all his values, his peculiarities, his conflicts and frustrations, is in large part a cultural creation. He comes into a world a human animal; he becomes a human being as a result of a complicated process of interaction with his society and his culture. Moreover, he becomes a unique personality by virtue of a unique set of experiences within his society and culture. The literature on culture is abundant. Among the best sources are Ruth Benedict's *Patterns of Culture*,⁵ Ralph Linton's *The Cultural Background of Personality*,⁶ and John Gillin's *The Ways of Men*.⁷

THE COMMUNITY

Social groups, institutions, and culture must have a locality focus, and here we find another essential sociological concept, the *community*. The community is a comprehensive social organization consisting of groups, institutions, and culture integrated into a place where the living is done. It is the person's local social world. The literature on the community is rapidly growing, especially in the form of specific community studies. The Lynds' *Middletown and Middletown in Transition*⁸ are perhaps still the classics in this field. The Yankee City Series is a somewhat more elaborate community study done cooperatively by a large staff of research workers under W. Lloyd Warner. The most valuable of these reports is *The Social Life of a Modern Community*,⁹ though others in the series are useful also.¹⁰ James West's *Plainville, U.S.A.*¹¹ and Albert Blumenthal's *Small-Town Stuff*¹² carry community analysis to non-urban areas. Many of the textbooks on rural sociology—those by N. L. Sims,¹³ Dwight Sanderson,¹⁴ J. H. Kolb and E. deS. Brunner,¹⁵ T. Lynn Smith,¹⁶ Lowry Nelson¹⁷ — while secondary, are excellent sources of community material from the rural aspects. A number of books study the community as complicated by the racial situation, for example, Hortense Powdermaker's *After Freedom*,¹⁸ Allison Davis and Burleigh B. and Mary

R. Gardner's *Deep South*,¹⁹ and John Dollard's *Caste and Class in a Southern Town*.²⁰

Since the community is a place as well as a social organization, the spatial distribution of its phenomena has special significance. This spatial pattern is known as *social* or *human ecology*, and it is one of the areas in sociological study in which great strides have been made. Two excellent texts summarizing the ecological materials have only recently been published—James A. Quinn's *Human Ecology*²¹ and Amos H. Hawley's book of the same title.²² There have also been a large number of monographic studies over the last twenty years that help both with the theoretical concepts of ecology and with the special problems respectively dealt with. Among these are Clifford R. Shaw's *Delinquency Areas*,²³ and his more recent study (with Henry D. McKay) *Juvenile Delinquency and Urban Areas*;²⁴ Walter C. Reckless's *Vice in Chicago*,²⁵ Harvey W. Zorbaugh's *The Gold Coast and the Slum*,²⁶ and Robert E. L. Faris and H. Warren Dunham's *Mental Disorders in Urban Areas*.²⁷

Community study has been pushed in other directions. Arthur Hillman in *Community Organization and Planning*²⁸ not only deals with the theoretical concepts but also with practical problems in a way that purports to aid in the improvement of the community. The textbooks on urban sociology—those by Noel P. Gist and L. A. Halbert²⁹ and by Stuart A. Queen and L. F. Thomas³⁰ are the standards—tend to regard their studies as surveys of the urban community. Joanna C. Colcord's *Your Community*³¹ furnishes the most elaborate outline available for the practical analysis of the community. Appropriate fiction should not be neglected in this area; mention can be made of Elmer Rice's *Imperial City*,³² James T. Farrell's Studs Lonigan books,³³ and John P. Marquand's *Point of No Return*,³⁴ the latter apparently a direct fictional account of Yankee City, referred to above.

SOCIAL CHANGE AND INTERACTION

The concepts so far mentioned have to do with *social structure*. There are many that refer to social processes. In fact the concepts of *social change* and *interaction* constitute another major category of sociological phenomena. No study of culture can go far without consideration of *invention*, *diffusion*, and *ac-*

culturation. Social groups and the community function through *cooperation*, *competition*, *conflict*, *differentiation*, *accommodation*, and *assimilation*. In two areas of social process, the horizons of sociology have in the last few years been pushed back with great rapidity—the processes at work in the subtle, sub-surface interaction of small social groups, and the processes of stratification or formation of social classes. William Foote Whyte's *Street Corner Society*³⁵ and Robert F. Bales's *Interaction Process Analysis*³⁶ are two of the best monographs. The sociometric movement, deriving from J. L. Moreno's *Who Shall Survive?*,³⁷ has aided tremendously in the analysis of school, factory, army, and small community groups; and it has its own journal, *Sociometry*.³⁸

George C. Homans has recently published *The Human Group*,³⁹ in which this type of analysis is summarized and extended. Sociologists have also made great progress in the study of social classes and other formations on the basis of social prestige. Many of the community studies mentioned earlier—especially those of the Lynds, Warner, Davis and Gardner, Powdermaker, and Dollard—are also essentially studies of social classes and castes, and their implications. To this list should be added W. L. Warner's *Democracy in Jonesville*.⁴⁰ C. C. North's *Social Differentiation*⁴¹ is an older study dealing with the factors of stratification and prestige on a broader scale. Two of the most pertinent of the stratification studies for teachers are *Who Shall Be Educated?*⁴² by W. L. Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, and Martin B. Loeb, and *Elmtown's Youth*,⁴³ by August B. Hollingshead, in which the authors deal with the school as it actually operated in a social class system. Some sociologists would also like to claim Alfred C. Kinsey from the biologists, because of his extremely revealing studies in his famous report⁴⁴ of the class differentials in sexual behavior.

SOCIAL ROLE AND STATUS

Turning to the consideration of the person, one must not neglect the concepts of *social role* and *social status*—what one does and what position one holds in his many group relationships. Sociology and social psychology share the study of these matters, but E. T. Hiller's *Social Relations and Structures*⁴⁵ should be

noted as presenting a most comprehensive treatment, especially of status.

THE TEACHER AS OBSERVER

Teachers have not only a special need for sociological tools, but they also have excellent first-hand opportunities for study and application. The school is one of our major institutions, with a great diversity of social groups, a complex set of interrelationships with other institutions and with the community, and a sub-culture of its own. Teachers will increasingly have the opportunity of studying educational sociology, both through courses in college and through such books as L. A. and E. F. Cook's *A Sociological Approach to Education*⁴⁶ and Joseph S. Roucek's (Ed.) *Sociological Foundations of Education*.⁴⁷ The use of sociological concepts in analyzing educational problems and institutions is illustrated in *College Life and the Mores* by Janet A. Kelley.⁴⁸ By all odds the most penetrating sociological analysis of education is a book, now unfortunately out of print, by the late Willard Waller, *The Sociology of Teaching*.⁴⁹ It is primarily interpretative, but full of insights such as only the trained sociologist can make. James H. S. Bossard is another sociologist who has put the tools of his trade to excellent use in dealing with problems a teacher should be familiar with in his book *The Sociology of Child Development*.⁵⁰

Since this paper purports to deal with concepts, little has been said of race, population, hereditary foundations of social life, or social pathologies. These are all, however, areas of great import both from a theoretical and a practical point of view in education. There are many excellent books in each area.

HANDBOOKS, RESEARCH METHODS, JOURNALS

One final suggestion may be pertinent. The teacher wishing to know "what sociology is all about" has available three excellent small handbooks, which present both brief summaries of the various fields and areas of sociology and also glossaries or definitions of the concepts most used. These are E. B. Reuter's *Handbook of Sociology*,⁵¹ A.M. Lee's (Ed.) *A New Outline of the Principles of Sociology*,⁵² and Joseph S. Roucek and R. L. Warren's *Sociology, An Introduction*.⁵³ More elaborate definitions will be found in Henry Pratt Fairchild's (Ed.) *Dictionary of Sociology*,⁵⁴ and of course in

The Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences.⁵⁵

Anyone interested in discovering how sociologists go about their research will find in Pauline V. Young's *Scientific Social Surveys and Research*⁵⁶ a very comprehensive explanation. Much can be gleaned from this book regarding both the techniques of sociological research and certain of the results of a very large number of the research projects sociologists have undertaken. Readers interested in the objective observation of community phenomena by teachers will profit from reading George A. Lundberg's *Social Research*.⁵⁷

The leading professional journals are *The American Sociological Review*, the official publication of the American Sociological Society;⁵⁸ *The American Journal of Sociology*,⁵⁹ *Social Forces*,⁶⁰ *Sociology and Social Research*,⁶¹ and *Rural Sociology*.⁶² Many issues of *The Annals* deal with matters of distinctly sociological interest.⁶³

The textbooks most widely used in elementary college courses⁶⁴ furnish convenient summaries and explanations of the great variety of concepts, sources, tools, and methods in the field. They are naturally considerably more detailed than the handbooks. The references mentioned throughout this article help with the basic concepts and treat monographically of many of the phenomena and problems of this field of the social sciences. Every social studies teacher will benefit from some familiarity with this field of knowledge.

¹ "Group Description," *Social Forces*, 16:309-319, March 1938; "A Preliminary Group Classification Based on Structure," *Social Forces*, 17:196-201, Dec. 1938.

² Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1932.

³ Lincoln, Nebr.: University of Nebraska Press, 1946.

⁴ New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936.

⁵ Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934.

⁶ New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1945.

⁷ New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1948.

⁸ *Middletown*, by Robert S. and Helen Merrell Lynd. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1929; *Middletown in Transition*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1937.

⁹ By W. Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941.

¹⁰ *The Status System of a Modern Community*. By W. Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1942; *The Social Systems of American Ethnic Groups*. By W. Lloyd Warner and Leo Srole. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1945; *The Social System of the Modern Factory*. By W. Lloyd Warner and J. O. Low. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1947.

¹¹ New York: Columbia University Press, 1945.

¹² Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932.

- ¹³ *Elements of Rural Sociology*. Third edition. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1940.
- ¹⁴ *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1942.
- ¹⁵ *A Study of Rural Society*. Third edition. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1946.
- ¹⁶ *The Sociology of Rural Life*. Revised edition. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.
- ¹⁷ *Rural Sociology*. New York: American Book Co., 1948.
- ¹⁸ New York: The Viking Press, 1939.
- ¹⁹ Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941.
- ²⁰ New Haven: Yale University Press, 1937.
- ²¹ New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.
- ²² New York: The Ronald Press, 1950.
- ²³ Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.
- ²⁴ Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1942.
- ²⁵ Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933.
- ²⁶ Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.
- ²⁷ Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.
- ²⁸ New York: The Macmillan Co., 1950.
- ²⁹ *Urban Society*. Third edition. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1948.
- ³⁰ *The City*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1939.
- ³¹ Revised by Donald S. Howard. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947.
- ³² New York: Coward-McCann, Inc., 1937.
- ³³ *Studs Lonigan*. A Trilogy. *Young Lonigan, The Young Manhood of Studs Lonigan, Judgment Day*. New York: The Vanguard Press, 1932, 1934, 1935.
- ³⁴ Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1949.
- ³⁵ Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1943.
- ³⁶ Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Press, Inc., 1950.
- ³⁷ Washington, D. C.: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co., 1934.
- ³⁸ Published by Beacon House, Inc., 101 Park Avenue, New York, New York.
- ³⁹ New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1950.
- ⁴⁰ New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949.
- ⁴¹ Chapel Hill, N. C.: University of North Carolina Press, 1926.
- ⁴² New York: Harper & Brothers, 1944.
- ⁴³ New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949.
- ⁴⁴ *Sexual Behavior in the Human Male*. By Alfred C. Kinsey, Wardell B. Pomeroy, and Clyde E. Martin. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1948.
- ⁴⁵ New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947.
- ⁴⁶ Second edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950.
- ⁴⁷ New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1942.
- ⁴⁸ New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.
- ⁴⁹ New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1932.
- ⁵⁰ New York: Harper & Brothers, 1948.
- ⁵¹ New York: The Dryden Press, 1941.
- ⁵² New York: Barnes & Noble, 1946.
- ⁵³ Ames, Iowa: Littlefield, Adams & Co., 1951.
- ⁵⁴ New York: Philosophical Library, 1944.
- ⁵⁵ Edited by Edwin R. A. Seligman. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1930-1935. Fifteen volumes.
- ⁵⁶ Second edition. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949.
- ⁵⁷ New York: Longman's Green, 1942.
- ⁵⁸ Executive Office: New York University, Washington Square, New York, New York.
- ⁵⁹ Published by The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois.
- ⁶⁰ Published by The University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, N. C.
- ⁶¹ Published by The University of Southern California Press, Los Angeles, California.
- ⁶² Managing editor: North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering, Raleigh, N. C.
- ⁶³ Published by the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Philadelphia, Pa.
- ⁶⁴ One of the best and most recent of these is John F. Cuber, *Sociology*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1951.

The Teaching of Current Events and American History

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In teaching the American history course the progressive and efficient instructor does not depend solely on past events as recorded in the textbook. He lays out his course in such a way that America's story will be carried beyond the text account of it into the very present.

This method precludes the idea of having the class read superficially numerous current happenings one period a week, as so many teachers do. *The field of current events as related to American history is woven into the course as a whole, being made to fit organically into the respective units or subjects as they are studied individually.* This means that current events are made an *integral part* of the

course—an unfinished good story is never satisfactory. It means that current events are as much a part of the course as textbook material. It is good pedagogy to make past events (the textbook account) and current events serve each other in the cause of modern and lasting education.

Incidentally, we call the attention of our readers to the fact that the suggestions about teaching of American history and current events disclosed in this article can be used generally in the teaching of any other history course and in the teaching of economics.

In the teaching of American or any other history, instructors should keep in mind that

they cannot accomplish as much good as they could unless they remember that neither text content nor current events should be taught according to the encyclopedic principle, which stresses knowledge and information for their own sake to be recited parrot-fashion by students. Rather they should regard the teaching of both text content and current events as potent instruments for the understanding and strengthening of American democracy and the realization of its vital purposes. We say this because it is a well-known fact that altogether too many teachers conduct history and current events instruction in a dull, lifeless, uninteresting, and almost fruitless manner, the students taking no more real interest in current events than they usually do in what the text says, which is rather slight.

GUIDE QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

The following questions are examples which both students and teachers may care to consider in their preparation for the study and discussion of American history and current events connected with it.

1. What vital problems and issues are before the American people at the present time?
2. Compare these with the problems and issues that confronted our people in times covered by the textbook.
3. Do current happenings show any new slants or phases of old problems? If so, explain them.
4. Which of the questions of yesteryear (textbook times) caused heated and prolonged discussion? Why? Which ones are now causing similar discussions? Explain why.
5. What foes and enemies of democracy and public welfare do you find in the text account of our history? Why were they so regarded? Do current happenings show that American democracy has the same or similar antagonists at the present time? Explain.
6. During the period covered by the class text what was done toward obtaining political democracy? Social democracy? Economic democracy? What is being done now in behalf of these phases of our democracy? Give illustrations.
7. What and how many principles of American democracy do you find in your study of the text? Compare these with those you find in current events happenings.

8. *In practice* has the United States followed and is it now following the much exploited doctrine of isolation? Prove what you say.

9. Compare present American scientific, social, and educational standards and achievements with those of textbook times.

10. Produce considerable evidence that current American civilization is today richer in aesthetic, artistic, and spiritual attainment than it was during the centuries covered by the class text.

11. Compare the leading organizations and forces that existed years ago and influenced public opinion with those that exist today. What are your conclusions?

12. Give the main steps in the struggle for freedom of speech and press as found in the textbook. Give illustrations which prove that the same struggle is going on today.

ASSIGNMENTS AND PROCEDURES

During the first three or more weeks of this course textbooks are not used—not even distributed to the students. Their duty during this time is the gathering of newspaper clippings and organizing them according to topics or units or problems. However, they are not required to analyze, evaluate, and discuss the content of their clippings during the first few weeks, the reason being that they are not yet qualified to do so in an intelligent and meaningful way. That type of work comes later on—when they get into textbook work.

In their ceaseless search of newspapers, students to their surprise will soon discover that the United States is literally a boiling pot of problems—economic, social, political; local, national, international. Current events will take on an entirely new and deeper meaning for every student. Perhaps for the first time in their lives they will understand why intelligent and useful citizens devote considerable time to the reading and study of newspapers. And we bet dollars to doughnuts that most of them will continue to be eager and diligent readers of the press as long as they live. That has been our experience in many long years of teaching the social studies.

What takes place in the classroom during the first few weeks? Very naturally, students will encounter some difficult and puzzling problems connected with their first ventures in gathering newspaper material for the course.

They will ask the teacher many a question about the nature and classification of the news clippings, and the teacher will ask them many a question too. Students will want to know what this, that, and the other thing means; how best to classify their clippings; what certain words and phrases mean, and the like.

During this current events exploration period of a few weeks, the teacher will give careful attention to the solution of the difficulties of individual students; he will give a part of a class period now and then to brief talks on the nature of democracy as we know it; comment at times on the various principles and phases and problems of our national economy; make clear to the class the various objectives of the course as a whole; discuss effective habits of study; explain and illustrate how the student can formulate well-worded fact and thought questions for class discussion. There will be plenty of fruitful things to do in the classroom during these first few weeks, make no mistake about that.

What about textbook assignments? In the opinion of the writer, the customary practice of assigning a few pages of the text for each lesson and asking students to recite on what they have read should not be used, because the *lasting* value of this method has proved itself to be comparatively slight. It is condemned because it chops history into small bits and thus prevents the student from ever getting a unified and comprehensive view of what has occurred in history and leads him to regard that vital subject as dry as dust and less valuable than that element of nature.

In accordance with our view of teaching history, the student is asked to read a whole chapter or unit all the way through and in doing so note the unravelling of great movements, problems and tendencies contained in it—political, economic, social.

An outstanding feature of this manner of teaching American history with integrated current events is that of requiring students to arrange in parallel columns the results of their reading, the columns being captioned: I, Current Problems; II, Textbook Problems; III, Public Questions Finally Settled; IV, New Phases of Old Problems (textbook problems); and V, New Problems (current problems).

This scheme places before each student and the class as a whole a bird's-eye view of the vital happenings of the past (textbook times) as compared with those of the present. The students will observe that comparatively few major problems in our entire history have been solved completely; that most textbook questions are still public problems but that progress has been made on them; that much remains to be done; that they have a responsibility in preparing themselves to do their share of social thinking, social planning, and social achievement. Students will be decidedly impressed with the fact that history is not dry-as-dust stuff.

The important questions and problems in our history that have been settled are covered in comparatively short time—questions such as that of determining and establishing the form of government the United States should have, the abolition of slavery, and the supremacy of the federal Government. What real sense is there in asking high school students to study and discuss *at length* problems in our history that no longer exist? Why, for instance, consume a whole half-year of school time in getting no further than the end of the Civil War, pestering students with hundreds and hundreds of petty and insignificant questions? If they had seven or eight years in which to study our history, that would be quite a different matter. Think of the importance and the significance of American history from the end of that war to the very present!

Because it would be impossible to study and discuss all the important questions and problems in American history during a single school year, a judicious selection from among them is a primary duty of the teacher. We are of the opinion that textbook problems which are of current import and new problems that have come to the front since the text was published are ~~the ones~~ which should be selected and thoroughly discussed.

Each one of the selected problems should be traced from its beginning to the very present or traced from its very present to its beginning, *treated as a unit*, even if the textbook does not present it that way. The teacher will see to it that every student has a number of fact and thought questions to guide him in his study of

every problem selected. What more captivating and fruitful technique could be devised than that of tracing the origin, the development, and the *present status* of problems in American history?

Certainly our students should be well grounded in the historical aspects and the *present status* of such phases of American history as the evolution and development of our democracy, distinctive features of our government, political parties and how they actually operate, the struggle for clean and competent government, the emergence and maintenance of public education, the evolution and current status of religious and racial toleration, the founding and the function of our courts, the problem of agriculture, the problem of communication, the problem of production and distribution, the rights and duties of citizens, the conduct of foreign relations, American cultural achievements, the creation of sound public opinion.

In conducting this course, the teacher should always be conscious of the fact that the classroom is to be regarded as a workshop, a social studies laboratory, a democratization factory—not as an old-fashioned recitation room where students come to say over again, usually in decidedly poor fashion, what textbook authors have probably said better.

BASIC POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC TRUTHS

By the time the course in American history is finished, certain basic political and economic truths should have been firmly established and enduringly embedded in the mind of every student. As we see it, among them are these:

1. "It is difficult to make our national condition better by the best laws, but it is easy enough to ruin it by bad laws."—Theodore Roosevelt.
2. Concentration of power in peace times is always dangerous, whether that power is centered in business management, labor unions, or the Government itself.
3. Government extravagance, if not stopped, will drain from the pockets of potential investors the risk capital which is the lifeblood of productive enterprise.
4. Regimentation and liberty are implacable foes.
5. The faults of our democracy should not blind us to its achievements and possibilities.
6. Nothing can be sound in practice which is unsound in principle.
7. When people are badly informed or misinformed they are sure to draw unsound and destructive conclusions.
8. The road to statism, tyranny, and economic slavery has always been paved with alluring promises and lighted with social welfare schemes.
9. An ignorant voter is a menace to democracy.
10. The only real source of purchasing power is production—if wages increase without corresponding increase in worker output, there is no real gain in purchasing power.
11. To legislate more and more social welfare benefits without realizing that we must first produce the means to meet the costs is bound to lead to cruel and bitter disappointment.
12. "Spend and spend and tax and tax" is a dangerous and costly slogan. There is no surer way to discourage enterprise and increase the cost of living than by taking the heart out of people through unnecessary and burdensome taxation.
13. Government spending is much easier to start than to stop.
14. The power to tax is the power to destroy.
15. Under a Government-planned economy the people necessarily become servants of the state.
16. No person can vote intelligently if he lacks understanding of major current events or is an extreme partisan.
17. Prices, wages, profits, productivity and social stability are all tied together.
18. Labor, capital, management and consumers are all in the same boat—what hurts one hurts the other.
19. No good citizen believes and takes part in arousing group against group, class against class.
20. Ignorance, prejudice, bigotry, gullibility, extreme partisanship, and blind following of leaders are deadly enemies of sound and reliable thinking.
21. Democracy always stands in need of people who are able to do critical thinking and do not permit others to do their thinking for them.

22. "Man does not live by bread alone."

Do our students have embedded in their minds these or similar political and economic truths when they finish the course in American history and current events?

Viewed as a whole, the major purpose of this course is that boys and girls all over the United States shall realize and appreciate what American ideals, principles, and aims are. To this end they must be trained in understanding the historical developments of the leading movements and issues in our history, and

know what editors, contributors, and important public men think about current conditions and problems. To achieve this purpose students must be educated to do careful, unbiased, and critical thinking about the topics and questions covered by the course.

Without doubt, teachers of American history and current events are in a responsible and key position to influence for good the present and the future thinking of many millions of our citizens and the destiny of the United States. This responsibility they must not shirk.

Soviet Membership in the U. N.

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An eminent student of current affairs, in a recent article, paid his respects to a perplexing problem in these words:

"... it seems to me as plain as daylight that ... we should develop it [the United Nations] into an association in which only those nations which maintain free institutions would be willing to participate or would indeed be admitted. To pretend that your enemy is your friend and to invite him to your council chamber seems to me to be the height of insanity."¹

When I first read that passage it seemed to make sense. After all, as it suggests, when we are at war we do not pretend to be at peace and invite the enemy to the meetings of the General Staff. Therefore, since the difference between a hot and a cold war is one only of degree, why should we carry on the farce at Lake Success, pretending friendship with Russia when in reality we are admitting the enemy into our council chamber? And one might add, providing him with a rostrum for world propaganda on a gigantic scale.

But does that state the case accurately? Are we justified in thus comparing the United Nations to our council chamber? The latter is not to be found in New York, but at Washington, just as the enemy's headquarters are

at Moscow. No secrets are being revealed to Mr. Vishinsky or Mr. Malik by having them in New York. Rather than appearing to admit the enemy to our council chamber, let us say that we are, in the midst of war, conducting exploratory discussions with the purpose of finding a way to end the war. Such discussions in the past have usually come near the close of wars; why should we now throw away the opportunity for such negotiations in the early stages of the war or along the way? I am reminded that the negotiations which ended the Berlin blockade began in the lounge of the United Nations.

But having straightened out our metaphors, we still face the terrific object lesson of June-July, 1950, when Russia was temporarily out of the United Nations, as well as of August when she was back in and occupying the president's chair in the Security Council. Here was a situation which has drawn attention to itself like a powerful search light. The free world could not help asking: If Russia were not a member of the United Nations could it not really be made to work as it was intended? And then as if determined to stress the point themselves, the Soviets staged the famous Malik episode in August, providing by negative demonstration that when Russia is in the United

Nations all effective action is blocked. The procedure of Malik as president of the Security Council for that month, because of the crucial issues involved, his own skill in sabotaging the work of the Council, and the wide publicity given it through radio and television, all combined to call attention to the U. N. and its basic problem as nothing else had done up to that time. It became obvious that the United Nations was being wrecked by the Cold War.

That experience spotlights the crucial question which is not answered by disposing of the council chamber argument above. It is a question of whether the United Nations should be turned into a military alliance for the West or retained as the one organization of universal membership in which we may rest our hopes for a better world. On the one hand it can be argued that we already have the North Atlantic Pact and other arrangements outside the U. N. around which the free world may be organized for defense. But on the other hand the basic purpose of the United Nations—its very reason for existence—is to prevent aggression, and how can it hope to realize such purpose when its actions are continually blocked by one of its members? It may be seriously asked, should Soviet Russia be allowed to remain in the United Nations for the sole purpose of frustrating its efforts?

The question presents a real dilemma. If Russia should withdraw, either by secession or expulsion, she would probably take most of the Soviet bloc with her. With China also out (in fact if not in name), only three of the five great powers would remain. Such a truncated organization could not exert the moral force of the present U. N., much less provide the hope of collective security for the entire world. The United Nations would become merely another coalition in a world of power politics, of which there have been plenty in the past. Its unique purpose in history would have been sacrificed. Yet the presence of Russia will continue to defeat that very purpose. As long as she is a member it appears that the will of the majority will be stymied in vital matters by her right of veto in the Security Council.

A common cry is to do away with the veto. But had it not been for the right of veto Russia probably would have withdrawn long ago. The

men who framed the present Charter accepted the world as it was and started from there. That is, they started from national sovereignty and made no effort to deny or ignore it. The great powers depend on the veto to protect their sovereignty. Russia, however, has used it to offset her minority position in matters which did not involve her sovereignty. In other words, she used the veto in place of votes. But in spite of that the other permanent members of the Security Council would doubtless refuse to surrender the right, even assuming that the Charter could be so amended.

There is one strong beam of hope in the present gloom. It stems from the emergence of the General Assembly into a position of potential power and usefulness. After the return of the Soviets to the Security Council last August it was apparent that little if any positive action in dealing with aggression could be had in that body. As a result, Secretary Acheson, on September 20, introduced into the General Assembly certain proposals designed to enable the Assembly to discharge its responsibility "if the Security Council is unable to act because of the obstructive tactics of a permanent member." Specifically the plan would provide for an emergency session of the General Assembly if the Security Council failed to act immediately upon an aggression, establish a peace patrol to observe and report upon areas of international tension, oblige each member to designate units of its armed forces for prompt service on behalf of the United Nations, and create a commission to make proposals for collective action, including the use of armed force.

When the Assembly adopted the above proposal in November by a vote of 52 to 5 it virtually stated that if the Security Council should be stymied by a Soviet veto in a case of aggression, the Assembly can recommend (not order) action by a two-thirds vote. It means that each member nation is expected to earmark certain elements of its armed forces for the United Nations. It does not mean, however, that they are, or would be, obliged to use those forces when the Assembly should recommend it; that point was referred to a committee for further study.

Note that this resolution was passed by the

Assembly acting under its powers as stated in Article 10 of the Charter—power to discuss and make recommendations on any question not being considered by the Security Council. In effect, then, this action constitutes an interpretation of its own powers by the Assembly itself. One is reminded that the power of the House of Commons developed in much the same manner, by declaring its rights as it chose to interpret them and then eventually "making it stick." Is it too much to hope that the General Assembly likewise may increase its authority by thus interpreting its powers and also "making it stick?" That its power to make recommendations might come to have the effect of power to enforce? That the United Nations might find itself with power to act speedily in a case of aggression such as the attack on Korea, *even though Russia were an active member?* It would act through the Assembly instead of the Security Council. It would thus provide collective security for such of its members as chose to participate.

The crucial question, of course, is whether the above procedure could be carried out by the Assembly without causing the Soviet withdrawal. With no veto power there as she has in the Security Council, would Russia secede from the United Nations as did Japan, Italy and Germany when disciplined by the League of Nations? On the basis of the Korean experience it may be assumed that she would stay in. She actually *came back in* after the Security Council had taken action against her puppet aggressor of North Korea. Indeed, one of the most significant things about the Korean war, as it touches the destiny of the United Nations, is the fact, often overlooked, that Russia has remained in the organization. The League of Nations never evinced such stability, as evidenced by the fact mentioned above that the great powers simply seceded when outvoted or censured on a matter of vital interest. Since the principle of universal membership has been thus far preserved against serious odds, it would appear advisable that we re-appraise it, not only for its practical advantages in the present Cold War, but also for its survival value to the whole idea of collective security. If the present United Nations should disintegrate as did the League of Nations it is doubtful whether

a third attempt would soon be made by discouraged humanity.

The prospect of the General Assembly gradually superseding the Security Council in vital functions is reinforced by a steady trend in this direction from the first. Ever since the establishment of the United Nations the Security Council has been thwarted by the East-West dispute, while the Assembly with its preponderance of free nations has steadily developed in prestige and in authority based on prestige. Without going into the history which would clearly reveal such a trend, it may be said that the record is truly impressive. There is indeed more than a touch of irony in the fact that the San Francisco Charter was fashioned so carefully to preserve authority with the great powers in the Security Council, only to have that concentration of power dissipated in weakness as the giants strove together; while the Assembly, with a more universal membership and a more democratic basis, in spite of severely limited powers, has gradually become more useful in conciliating disputes and in promoting political cooperation, and has been especially effective as a forum for broadcasting and even formulating world opinion.

We must not allow ourselves to forget that this development may be only a transitory thing. Yet I would emphasize again the similarity in the manner of its growth to the evolution of other institutions such as the British House of Commons, through custom and precedent, and the adaptation of a political organ to political needs as those needs made themselves manifest in history.

Although the purpose of this article was to explore a problem rather than argue a case, I come out nevertheless with the conclusion that in the interest of peace in our day as well as for the sake of the United Nations ideal, Soviet membership should be allowed and encouraged as long as possible. If Russia remains in the United Nations there is a fair chance that it may be able to function through the General Assembly; but if she withdraws or is expelled the United Nations will assuredly fail in its true mission. That mission must not merely be thought of in terms of the present crisis, but must be interpreted in historical perspec-

tive which sees the United Nations primarily as a child of the future. Moreover, in using the word "child" we denote reality, both in present weakness and in future potentialities. Enduring institutions grow slowly; it is difficult to appraise gradual change at close range. Even so I will affirm that should the present

United Nations go down under the wreckage of civilization, someone in centuries to come will yet write the history of a noble idea, an idea which was temporarily thwarted but which rose again—because it was necessary.

¹ Sir Duff Cooper, "The Plough and the Furrow," *Foreign Affairs*, October, 1950.

World History by Units for Secondary Schools

WINIFRED B. FOSTER

James S. Deady Junior High School, Houston, Texas

UNIT VIII. IMPERIALISM AND INTERNATIONAL RIVALRY. 3 Weeks.

Specific Aims:

1. Understanding the meaning and importance of imperialism.
2. Understanding the relation of imperialism to the advance of civilization.
3. Understanding the position of China as an object of European imperialism and the conditions which made this imperialism possible.
4. Understanding why Japan did not become the object of European imperialism that China was, and how Japan itself became imperialistic.
5. Understanding how and why Africa became an object of imperialism.
6. Understanding how and why the U. S. embarked on the path of imperialism.
7. Understanding how Latin American nations struggled against imperialistic nations.
8. Understanding how industrial and scientific progress aided imperialism.

Introduction:

We have seen how the nations of the world became great powers and have noticed the rivalry resulting from it. Now we shall see how these nations embarked upon the new and untried paths of imperialism. You will see how these nations became great rivals in grabbing land and spheres of influence in all parts of

the globe. And while we know that this imperialism and international rivalry led directly to the twentieth century wars, there was also an important good effect—the spreading of European culture and civilization to the far reaches of the globe. You will be interested in following European civilization as it penetrates Africa, Asia and South America, bringing with it other serious problems and often a set-back for democracy. But the path was ever onward and upward in the march of civilization and democracy.

Outline Survey of Unit:

IMPERIALISM

- I. Definitions
 - A. Empire building and control over alien peoples
 - B. Land grabbing
- II. Reasons for Imperialism
 - A. Trade—need for markets and raw materials
 - B. Investments
 - C. Colonies—power
 - D. Surplus population
- III. Imperialism aided by:
 - A. Transportation
 - B. Industry and factories
 - C. Missionaries
 - D. Education

CHINA

- I. Rule by Dynasties '122 B.C.—1912 A.D.
 - A. Chou Dynasty—Great Wall built
 - B. Han Dynasty
 1. Buddhism

Editor's Note: This is the fourth group of units in an eleven-unit outline for a one-year World History course for high schools. Other units will appear in succeeding issues.

- 2. Confucianism
- C. T'ang Dynasty
- D. Sung Dynasty
- E. Yuan Dynasty — Mongols — Kublai Khan
 - 1. Marco Polo
 - 2. China united
- F. Ming Dynasty
- G. Manchu Dynasty 1644-1912
 - 1. Good Government
 - a. Keep laws; civil service laws
 - b. Education, literature, art
 - c. Religious toleration
 - d. Boundaries extended — Mongolia, Tibet, Sinkiang, Burma, Annam
 - 2. Attitude toward foreigners—hostile
 - a. Trade restricted to Canton, Christianity forbidden
 - b. Trade grows — English, Dutch, Swedes, Danes, French
 - c. Exchange furs, opium, silver, and gold for teas, spices, silk, satin, cotton, porcelain, ginger root
 - d. British want more ports
 - e. Opium War — between England and China
 - (1) Four more ports opened
 - (2) England gets Hong Kong
 - f. Treaties with U. S. and France—extraterritorial rights to American citizens
 - g. New war with China — 1856 — treaties
 - (1) Ten more ports opened
 - (2) Foreigners may travel in interior
 - (3) Christianity recognized
 - (4) Diplomats allowed in Peking
 - (5) England gets strip of coast opposite Hong Kong
 - (6) Russia gets piece of land on Pacific—Vladivostok
 - h. European nations get permanent places; divide China
 - (1) French—Cochin China, Annam, Tonkin; mining and railroad concessions
 - (2) Britain — Burma; another port
 - (3) Russia—builds railroad; lease on Port Arthur

- (4) Germany—99 years lease
- i. Boxer uprising
 - (1) Cause — rebellion against "Open Door" policy
 - (2) Results
 - (a) China pays
 - (b) U. S. returns money
- 3. China adopts Western ways
 - a. Education
 - b. Transportation
 - c. Mines and factories
 - d. Government and courts
- 4. Manchus overthrown—Republic set up

II. Republic of China—1912

- A. Two presidents—Sun Yat Sen; Yuan
- B. One president—Yuan
- C. Divided China

JAPAN

I. Ancient and Medieval Japan

- A. Advantages of location off coast
 - 1. Protection from foreign invasions
 - 2. Near enough to benefit from Chinese civilization
- B. Early government
 - 1. Mixed race—many tribes from continent
 - 2. Finally united under most powerful clan—Emperor
- C. Religion
 - 1. Nature, ancestor, hero worship
 - 2. Emperor descended from Sun Goddess—Shintoism
- D. Imitate Chinese—silk culture, character writing, Buddhism, art, math, government and legal codes
- E. Feudalism
 - 1. Government in hands of nobles and aristocrats
 - 2. Shoguns—Generalissimos

II. Europeans come to Japan

- A. Early attitude—traders and missionaries welcomed
- B. Later attitude 1624—traders and missionaries driven out
- C. U. S. forces entrance
 - 1. Commodore Perry—1853—2 ports open
 - 2. Commodore Perry—1858—5 ports open

- III. Emperor restored—1868
 - A. Jealousy among shoguns
 - B. Shogun had let in foreigners
 - C. Emperor should be ruler—felt by many
- IV. Japan becomes a Modern Empire—Emperor powerful
 - A. Tokyo the capital
 - B. Friendly policy toward western world
 - 1. Western ways studied by embassies and commissioners
 - 2. Students abroad
 - 3. Foreign advisors to government
 - C. Abolition of feudalism—1871—nobles surrender lands and privileges
 - 1. Districts with governors
 - 2. Universal military service replaces forces of feudal nobles
 - D. Western ways adopted
 - 1. Industries, factories
 - 2. Railways, telegraph, telephone
 - 3. Private capitalists allowed in many businesses
 - 4. Modern army and navy — copied Germany
 - E. Japanese Empire
 - 1. Government—democratic form but people have no power
 - a. Emperor and Privy Council all powerful
 - b. Cabinet and House have no power
 - 2. Defeat of China (1894) and Russia (1904)

THE UNITED STATES

- I. Early policy of isolation—keeping clear of foreign entanglements
 - A. Friction before 1815
 - 1. Many questions unsettled with England after war
 - 2. France expects consideration for aiding us
 - 3. England and France molest our ships
 - B. Peace of 1815 brings more isolation—keep out of European affairs
- II. Imperialism — 1898 — new and untried paths
 - A. Spanish-American War
 - 1. Philippines
 - 2. Wake, Guam, Porto Rico
 - 3. Hawaii
 - B. China—open door
 - C. Russo-Japanese War
 - D. Panama Canal Zone — 1902 — from

Panama after we helped Panama break away from Colombia

LATIN AMERICA

- I. The Spanish Empire—Rio to Cape Horn—20 republics now
 - A. Indians—Mayas, Aztecs, Incas
 - B. Government—absolute despotism
 - 1. Organization — viceroalties with viceroys
 - a. New Spain
 - b. New Granada
 - c. Peru
 - d. La Plata
 - 2. Corrupt officials, high taxes
 - 3. Economic restrictions
 - a. Minerals to Spain
 - b. Foreign trade forbidden
 - C. Life of the people
 - 1. Social classes
 - a. Crown officials—viceroys, army officers, tax collectors, clergy
 - b. Landholders
 - c. Creoles—American born Spaniards
 - d. Natives—Indians, Negroes, mestizos, mulattoes
 - 2. The Church—Catholic
 - a. Inquisition
 - b. Jesuits and Franciscans
 - 3. Education
 - a. Universities—Mexico City, Lima, Santo Domingo
 - b. Printing press
 - 4. Social Conditions
 - a. Utilities and protection lacking—water works, lighting, paving, fire and police protection
 - b. Manual labor despised
 - c. Upper classes honored with education and careers
- II. The Portuguese Empire—Brazil
 - A. Why Brazil was Portuguese
 - 1. Line of Demarcation
 - 2. Cabral
 - B. Government—less strict than Spain
 - C. Culture and education—little done
- III. Independence Movements and Wars
 - A. Causes leading to break with mother country
 - 1. Liberal ideas spread to new world
 - 2. Joseph Bonaparte on throne of Spain and Portugal

3. U. S. Revolution just over
 - B. Revolutionary leaders and movements
 1. South America—Bolívar and San Martín
 2. Mexico—
 - a. Hidalgo—father of Mexican independence
 - b. Iturbide—first Emperor of Mexico—1821
 3. Central America, Santo Domingo, Brazil become independent
 - IV. Relations with U. S.
 - A. Unfriendly feelings
 1. Suspicious American actions—annexation of Texas, War with Mexico, designs on Cuba, acquisition of Canal Zone
 2. Differences of race, language, religion, political ideas
 3. European in trade, immigrants, culture and dress
 - B. Monroe Doctrine
 1. Venezuela boundary dispute
 2. Venezuela debt dispute
 3. Santo Domingo debt dispute
 4. French in Mexico
 - C. Pan-Americanism
 1. Definition
 2. Pan-American conferences through the years—different cities
 - V. Latin America and World War I
 - A. Many suspicious of the U. S.—marines, '98 War, dollar diplomacy
 - B. Many neutral
 - C. None give any real help
 - D. League of Nations—U. S. didn't join
 - E. U. S. good-will ambassadors—Morrow, Lindbergh
 - VI. Latin America and World War II
 - A. Active War Efforts
 1. Naval patrol from Amazon to Magellan
 2. Axis ships seized
 3. Furnish naval and aviation bases
 4. Furnish strategic war materials
 - B. Argentina uncooperative—Why?
 1. Rival of U. S.—competitive products
 2. Many German and Italian immigrants
- INDUSTRIAL AND SCIENTIFIC PROGRESS
19TH CENTURY**
- I. The Machine Age
 - A. Industrial Revolution
 - B. Power
 1. Steam—railways, steamboats, machinery
 2. Electricity—telegraph, telephone, light, appliances
 3. Gas—
 - a. Engine—explosion of gas and air
 - b. Industry—gasoline
 - C. Rubber industry
 1. Source of rubber—Malay and East Indies before war
 2. Vulcanizing—Goodyear—make it tougher and more elastic
 3. Artificial rubber
 - D. Farming methods—new machinery
 1. Tractor, reaper, thresher, combine
 2. Milking machine, machine plow
 - II. The Earth and Living Things
 - A. Geology—study of earth through rocks and fossils
 - B. Evolution—Darwin—higher and more complicated kinds of animals and plants are derived from lower and simpler ancestors
 - III. Nature of Matter
 - A. Atoms—Greeks
 - B. Molecules
 1. Composition—atoms
 2. Behavior—constant motion—no "dead matter"
 - C. How atom is made—nucleus, electrons
 - IV. Modern Chemistry
 - A. In daily living
 1. Farming—analysis of soils, fertilizers, plants
 2. Industry—bleaching, dyeing, oil, rubber
 3. Food and its preservation
 4. Medicine and surgery
 - B. New substances created
 1. Coal-tar miracles—dyes, perfumes, flavoring, drugs, phonograph disks
 2. Bakelite—plastic
 3. Rayon and Nylon—substitutes for silk
 4. Synthetic rubber
 - V. Study of Man and Prevention of Disease
 - A. Formation of plants and animals—cells of protoplasm—26 billion cells in human body
 - B. Vaccination and inoculation—Jenner

- C. Anesthetics—laughing gas, ether, chloroform, cocaine
1. Lister—antiseptics
 2. Pasteur—germ theory
 - a. Identifying germs
 - b. Sterilization and pasteurizing—prevent typhoid fever
 - c. Making vaccine

VI. Spread of knowledge

- A. Western Europe
- B. Eastern Europe

Suggested Class Activities:

1. Text reading at various times as basis of discussion
2. Map studies, especially Africa and South America
3. Class discussions
4. Oral reports
5. Visual aids—films, filmstrips, slides

Suggested Home Work Activities:

1. Map—*Ancient China*. Shows rivers, cities, outlying provinces.
2. World map—*U. S. Territorial Possessions*.
3. Map—*Africa in 1914*. Show in colors the land owned by the various European countries.
4. Map—*South America*. Show mountains and 3 large rivers. Name and color the countries.
5. Read references from the reading list. Make book reports or short oral reports.
6. Topics for special reports:
 - Oriental religions—Confucianism, Buddhism, Taoism
 - Marco Polo
 - Opium War
 - Boxer Uprising
 - Sun Yat Sen
 - Soong Sisters
 - Shintoism
 - Commodore Perry
 - Inquisition
 - Jesuits and Franciscans
 - Liberators of South America
 - Monroe Doctrine
 - Pan-Americanism
 - Goodyear
 - Atomic Energy
 - Lister
 - Pasteur

UNIT IX. WORLD WAR I. 3 Weeks.

Specific Aims:

1. Understanding how world War I grew out of international rivalry which had been building up for years.
2. Understanding America's war aims.
3. Understanding the meaning and importance of the Russian revolution.
4. Understanding the weakness of the Treaty of Versailles.
5. Understanding the importance and weaknesses of the League of Nations.
6. Understanding the changes in the map of Europe.
7. Understanding plans for security and peace growing out of the war, and the causes of their failure.

Introduction:

I like to think of World War I and World War II as one war—the World War. Then World War I becomes the first phase of a great war for democracy. This war was the climax of international rivalries and jealousies which had been going on for years. We have been noticing these things in the two units preceding this. As we study now this war "to make the world safe for democracy," this "war to end all wars," you will be aware of the undercurrents of jealousy and rivalry which continue. And, while we won the war, we did not so easily win the peace. We shall see how the peace treaty was colored by this rivalry and how were sown the seeds for future continuance of the war.

Much blood and money was spilled in this first war. Was it all in vain? Just what was wrong with the treaty of Versailles? In what way was the League of Nations a failure? Is there any guarantee that the present U.N. will fare any better? These questions, as well as others of vital importance, will find their answers in this unit.

And so the struggle for democracy and civilization continues. As we study this unit you will be aware of the struggle, and of the hopes and aspirations of its leaders.

Outline Survey of Unit:

WORLD WAR I

I. Peace Movements

- A. International Peace Movement—nations should agree to limit arms

- B. Alfred Nobel—annual award to individual doing most to promote the cause of peace
- C. Hague Conferences—called by Czar of Russia
 - 1. Agreements for more humane warfare
 - 2. The Hague Court—panel of 70 judges from which to select mediators
 - 3. But no reduction of armaments
- II. Remote or underlying causes of the war
 - A. Building of great armies and military machines—ready for war
 - B. Nationalism and imperialism—rivalry for colonies, trade, power
 - C. Alliances—became armed camps
 - 1. Triple Alliance of Bismarck—Germany, Austria, Italy
 - 2. Triple Entente—France, England, Russia
- III. Immediate Cause of War—the Balkans
 - A. Russia and Austria are rivals for power in Balkans
 - B. Turkey becomes modern and strengthens her power and government
 - C. Austria annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina—offends Serbia, Russia, Turkey
 - D. Balkans break from Turkey and quarrel among themselves
 - E. Powers prepare for war—Germany, France, England, Belgium, Turkey
 - F. Assassination of Austrian archduke
 - 1. Austria's ultimatum and Serbia's reply
 - 2. Austria declares war
 - 3. Germany, Russia, France, Belgium, England enter conflict
- IV. Events of War—32 nations on Allied side; 4 on side of Central Powers
 - A. 1914-1915
 - 1. War plans
 - a. France and Russia—attack from both sides
 - b. Germany—crush France, then Russia
 - 2. The Western Front—Germans within 25 miles of Paris
 - a. Opposing battle lines formed—600 miles from Channel to Switzerland
 - b. Deadlock—trench warfare for 3½ years
 - 3. The Eastern front
 - a. Deadlock
 - b. Turkey joins Germany—England takes Egypt
 - c. Bulgaria joins Germany—because of failure at Gallipoli
 - 4. Italy joins Allies—1915—Why?
- B. 1916
 - 1. Western front—deadlock continues
 - 2. Eastern front—Rumania, Baghdad, Lawrence, Allenby
- C. 1917
 - 1. The U. S. enters the war
 - a. Americans shocked at Belgium's treatment
 - b. England stops our trade with Germany
 - c. Germany starts submarine warfare
 - (1) Promised to save lives
 - (2) Breaks promise—*Sussex, Essex, Lusitania*
 - d. Diplomatic relations broken off
 - e. Mexican note intercepted
 - f. U. S. declares war on Germany, April 6, 1917—President's speech, Congress acts
 - 2. More Allies—Cuba, Panama, Greece, Siam, Liberia, China, Brazil
 - 3. Neutral countries—Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Spain, Switzerland
 - 4. Russian revolution and withdrawal from war
 - a. Causes
 - (1) Disasters on front caused by inefficiency
 - (2) Bad conditions at home—food and land scarce, wages
 - (3) Liberals dismissed because of Rasputin's murder
 - b. Results
 - (1) Romanovs overthrown
 - (2) Republic set up—Kerensky at head
 - (3) Communist party formed with return of Lenin, Trotzky, Stalin
 - (4) Communists overthrow Republic—Russia quits war
- D. 1918
 - 1. Fourteen Points—open treaties, free-

- dom of seas, self-determination, League of Nations
- 2. German drives—race between Hindenberg and Wilson
 - a. March—40 miles gained; Foch Allied commander
 - b. April—10 miles advance
 - c. May—within 40 miles of Paris
 - d. June—stopped by A. E. F. aid under Pershing
 - e. July—Germans checked everywhere
- 3. Germans retreat—Allies follow
- 4. Germany loses Allies — Bulgaria (Sept.), Turkey (Oct.), Austria (Nov.)
- 5. Germany surrenders
 - a. Wilson refuses to deal with German government
 - b. Revolution in Germany ends Hohenzollerns — Emperor abdicates and flees to Holland, Republic set up with Ebert
 - c. The Armistice—Nov. 11, 1918
- V. Peace Settlements—Versailles
 - A. Nations present—32—70 delegates in all
 - B. Head groups
 - 1. Big Five—
 - 2. Big Four—Wilson, Lloyd George, Clemenceau, Orlando
 - 3. Big Three—
 - C. Treaty with Germany
 - 1. Loss of land
 - a. To Poland, Denmark, France
 - b. Colonies in Africa and Pacific—to England, France, Japan, U. S.
 - 2. Reduction of armaments
 - a. Army—only 100,000 for defense
 - b. Forts on Rhine to be destroyed
 - 3. Reparations—heavy war damages—never paid
 - 4. "War guilt" clause—admit sole blame for war
 - 5. League of Nations
 - a. Purpose—international cooperation, peace, security
 - b. Membership
 - (1) Fully self-governing states with peaceful intentions
 - (2) 1940—59 nations; had been 63—Germany, Italy, Japan, Spain had withdrawn
- c. Organization
 - (1) Assembly—all nations discuss world problems
 - (2) Council—carry out treaty and enforce peace
 - (a) Suggest settlement in case of dispute
 - (b) Boycott disobedient nation
 - (c) War with nations which continue disobedient — U. S. reason for not joining
- D. Treaties with Germany's Allies—lose land, money, armaments
- E. New nations created—Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Syria, Lebanon, Palestine, Transjordan, Iraq, Arabia.
 - 1. Paderewski—premier and foreign minister, first president of new Poland
 - 2. Germany
 - a. Ebert, first president
 - b. Hindenberg, second and last president
 - c. Parliament—Reichsrat, Reichstag
 - d. Growth of National Socialists—Nazi, Hitler
 - 3. Turkey becomes a modern republic
 - a. All religions equal—Moslems not favored
 - b. Government improved—laws modeled after West
 - c. Education
 - (1) Compulsory for youth
 - (2) Roman alphabet replaces Arabic type
 - (3) Adults — literary test for citizenship
 - d. Position of women improved—polygamy abolished, legal rights in marriage, western clothing, attend schools, vote, hold office, enter professions
 - e. Development of agriculture, commerce, industry—irrigation, railways, roads, ports, factories, electric plants, mines

(Continued on page 307)

T 17. Jacksonian Era, 1829-1841

STUDY OUTLINE

1. President Jackson, Symbol of Democracy
 - a. Jackson's career: childhood—military experiences; manhood—lawyer, politician, soldier; role in War of 1812; personality and characteristics
 - b. Election to Presidency: resentments roused by 1824 election, and Republican split; Jackson's victory in 1828
 - c. Personal politics: Jackson's Cabinet—the "Kitchen Cabinet"; Jackson a "strong" President—his beliefs, and concept of Presidency
 - d. Changing political practices: spread of western democratic ways; liberalizing the suffrage; popular election of officials—rotation in office; the "spoils system"; nominating conventions and party platforms; the political machine and party boss; third parties—Antimason, Liberty
 - e. A period of democratic ferment—political, industrial, social (see Topics T16, T18)
2. Tariff and Nullification
 - a. Changing sectional interests reflected in tariff history, 1815-1830; tariffs of 1816, 1824; Clay's "American System"—supporters and opponents
 - b. "Tariff of Abominations," 1828: its odd history; reactions to it, North and West; South's reaction—Calhoun's "Exposition and Protest" and its theories and implications
 - c. Webster-Hayne debate, 1830: new national theory v. old federal theory
 - d. Widening rift in Democratic party—Jackson and Calhoun factions
 - e. Tariff of 1832 and S. Carolina's Ordinance of Nullification; views and actions of President and Congress; Clay's compromise tariff, 1833; why basic issues remained
3. Bank Controversy
 - a. Sectional views on the U. S. Bank; Jackson's views
 - b. Re-charter bill: Jackson's veto, and the 1832 election; end of the bank
 - c. Results: censure of Jackson; state banks as federal depositories; expansion of state banks and issues of paper money—speculation; creation of Independent Treasury System; no U. S. bank (like Bank of England or of France)
4. Panic of 1837
 - a. Causes: more basic—reckless banking practices, inflation, over-extended transportation lines, feverish land speculation, crop failures at home and hard times abroad; more immediate—extinction of national debt and effects of Distribution Act and Specie Circular, collapse of speculation boom, failure of banks and business houses
 - b. Extent and effects of the subsequent depression; comparison of causes of panics of 1837 and 1857
5. The West
 - a. Indian struggle to keep home lands in Georgia and neighboring states; final defeat and removal beyond the Mississippi
 - b. Westward migration: fostered by federal public-land policies, land sales, expanding transportation lines (see Topic T18), immigration and population growth; admission of Arkansas, Michigan
6. Foreign Affairs: settlement of old disputes—with Britain over West Indies trade, with France over damages from Napoleonic Wars; story of Texas and winning of independence—moves for annexation
7. Campaigns of 1836, 1840—Whig party

AIDS TO LEARNING

AUDIO-VISUAL

Andrew Jackson (16 mm. sound film; 20 min.). Encyclopedia Britannica Films
 Old Hickory (16 mm. sound film, color; 17 min.). Teaching Film Custodians

Andrew Jackson (filmstrip). Pictorial Events
 Great American Presidents (filmstrip). Curriculum Films

Americans All (filmstrip). Informative Classroom Picture Publishers
 Freedom's Progress (filmstrip). Popular Science Publishing Co.

HISTORIES

J. W. Burgess, *The Middle Period* (American History series)

W. E. Dodd, *Expansion and Conflict* (Riverside History of the U. S.)

C. R. Fish, *The Rise of the Common Man* (A History of American Life, vol. 6)

W. MacDonald, *From Jefferson to Lincoln* (Home University Library)

W. MacDonald, *Jacksonian Democracy*; F. J. Turner, *Rise of the New West* (The American Nation, vols. 14, 15)

F. A. Ogg, *Builders of the Republic* (The Pageant of America, vol. 8); also *The Reign of Andrew Jackson* (The Chronicles of America, vol. 20)

J. T. Adams, *Album of American History*, II; C. A. & M. R. Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization*; C. Bowers, *Party Battles of the Jackson Period*; R. C. Buley, *The Old Northwest*; R. P. Butterfield, *The American Past*; E. Channing, *History of the U. S.*, V; E. N. Dick, *The Story of the Frontier*; C. B. Firestone, *Sycamore Shores*; N. F. Hoggson, *Epochs in American Banking*; S. Holbrook, *The Yankee Exodus*; J. B. McMaster, *History of the People of the U. S.*, V, VI; H. D. Milhollen & M. Kaplan, *Presidents on Parade*; S. E. Morison & H. S. Commager, *The Growth of the American Republic*; R. E. Riegel, *America Moves West*; A. M. Schlesinger, *New Viewpoints in American History*; A. M. Schlesinger, Jr., *The Age of Jackson*; E. E. Sparks, *The Men Who Made the Nation*

Biographies: M. Coit, *John C. Calhoun*; C. M. Fuess, *Daniel Webster*; B. R. & M. James, *The Courageous Heart* (Jackson), *Six Foot Six* (Sam Houston); J. C. Long, *The Liberal Presidents*; B. Mayo, *Henry Clay*; T. F. Moran, *American Presidents*; H. Nicolay, *Andrew Jackson*; C. Rourke, *Davy Crockett*. Consult the American Statesmen Series and the Dictionary of American Biography

ATLASES

Harper's *Atlas of American History*; C. L. & E. H. Lord, *Historical Atlas of the U. S.*; C. O. Paullin, *Atlas of the U. S.*, Plates 34, 35, 124, 125; *The United States Geo-historic Map Slides*, II

STORIES

J. Abbott, *Folly Farm*; S. H. Adams, *The Gorgeous Hussy*; J. A. Altsheler, *The Texas Scouts*; I. Bachelier, *The Light in the Clearing*; A. E. Barr, *Remember the Alamo*; W. Churchill, *The Crossing*; A. L. Crabb, *Home to the Hermitage*; P. Crawford, *"Hello, the Boat"*; J. F. Davis, *The Road to San Jacinto*; M. Dillon, *The Patience of John Morland*; M. Nicholson, *The Cavalier of Tennessee*; O. Shepard, *Holdfast Gaines*; H. H. Violette & A. C. Darby, *Trail to Santa Fé*

SOURCES

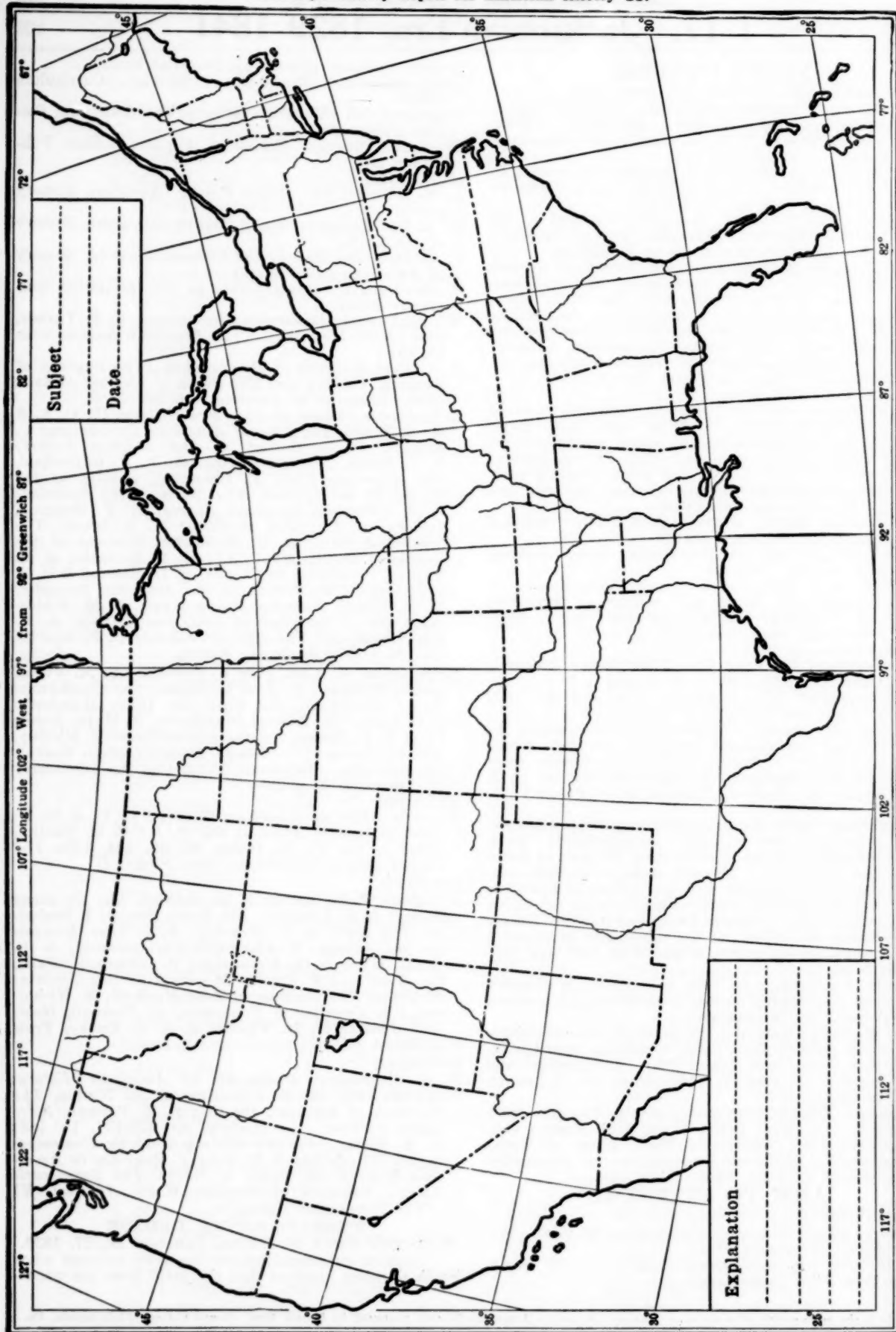
H. S. Commager, *Documents of American History*, 143-145, 147; H. S. Commager & A. Nevins, *The Heritage of America*, 134-137; S. E. Forman, *Sidelights on Our . . . History*, pp. 130-137, 150-163; A. B. Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, III, ch. 24; D. S. Muzzey, *Readings in American History*, 64, 66-68; B. Smith, *The Democratic Spirit*; Veterans of Foreign Wars, *America, VI* ("The Developing Nation")

WEBSTER-HAYNE DEBATE

WEBSTER'S REPLY TO HAYNE, JANUARY 26, 27, 1830.
 . . . It so happens that, at the very moment when South Carolina resolves that the tariff laws are uncon-

¹ This is the seventeenth of a series of History Topics for American History prepared by Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

McKinley's Geographical and Historical Outline Maps. No. 176b. The United States. (State boundaries.)



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MAP STUDY FOR TOPIC T17: UNITED STATES IN JACKSONIAN ERA

1. Bound the U. S. in 1837 and name the countries bordering it.
2. Distinguish, by shading or color, the thirteen free states and thirteen slave states.
3. Label "Florida Territory (slave)" and "Wisconsin Territory (free)." Note: what were the boundaries of Maine and Virginia at that time?

GLIMPSES OF LIFE IN THE JACKSONIAN ERA



By "prairie schooner," pioneers were venturing west to found a new home in the face of countless dangers, not the least being hostile Indians. Women, the n as now, were fascinated by "the latest Paris fashions."



Branded tyrant by his enemies, Jackson—representative of western democracy—was caricatured as an arbitrary monarch who trampled upon the Constitution, law, and rights of a free people.

stitutional, Pennsylvania and Kentucky resolve exactly the reverse. They hold those laws to be both highly proper and strictly constitutional. And now, sir, how does the honorable member propose to deal with this case? How does he relieve us from this difficulty, upon any principle of his? His construction gets us into it; how does he propose to get us out?

In Carolina, the tariff is a palpable, deliberate usurpation; Carolina, therefore, may nullify it, and refuse to pay the duties. In Pennsylvania, it is both clearly constitutional and highly expedient; and there, the duties are to be paid. And yet we live under a Government of uniform laws, and under a constitution, too, which contains an express provision, as it happens, that all duties shall be equal in all the States! Does not this approach absurdity?

If there be no power to settle such questions, independent of either of the States, is not the whole Union a rope of sand? Are we not thrown back again, precisely upon the old Confederation?

It is too plain to be argued. Four and-twenty interpreters of constitutional law, each with a power to decide for itself, and none with authority to bind anybody else, and this constitutional law the only bond of their union.

Some authority must, therefore, necessarily exist, having the ultimate jurisdiction to fix and ascertain the interpretation of these grants, restrictions, and prohibitions. The constitution has, itself, pointed out, ordained, and established, that authority. How has it accomplished this great and essential end? By declaring, sir, that "the constitution and the laws of the United States, made in pursuance thereof, shall be the supreme law of the land, anything in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary, notwithstanding."

This, sir, was the first great step. By this, the su-

premacy of the constitution and laws of the United States is declared. The people so will it. No State law is to be valid which comes in conflict with the constitution or any law of the United States passed in pursuance of it. But who shall decide this question of interference? To whom lies the last appeal? This, sir, the constitution itself decides also, by declaring "that the judicial power shall extend to all cases arising under the constitution and laws of the United States." These two provisions, sir, cover the whole ground. They are, in truth, the key-stone of the arch. With these, it is a constitution; without them, it is a confederacy. . . .

. . . It is to that Union we owe our safety at home, and our consideration and dignity abroad. It is to that Union that we are chiefly indebted for whatever makes us most proud of our country. That Union we reached only by the discipline of our virtues in the severe school of adversity. It had its origin in the necessities of disordered finance, prostrate commerce, and ruined credit. Under its benign influences, these great interests immediately awoke, as from the dead, and sprang forth with newness of life. Every year of its duration has teemed with fresh proofs of its utility and its blessings; and, although our territory has stretched out wider and wider, and our population spread farther and farther, they have not outrun its protection or its benefits. . . . While the Union lasts, we have high, exciting, gratifying prospects spread out before us, for us and our children. Beyond that, I seek not to penetrate the veil. God grant that, in my day, at least, that curtain may not rise. God grant that, on my vision, never may be opened what lies behind. . . .—*Register of Debates in Congress*, 21st Cong., 1st Sess., 78-80.

HAYNE'S REPLY TO WEBSTER, JANUARY 27, 1830.

It is clear that questions of sovereignty are not the proper subjects of judicial investigation. They are much too large, and of too delicate a nature, to be brought within the jurisdiction of a court of justice. . . .

No doubt can exist, that, before the States entered into the compact, they possessed the right, to the fullest extent, of determining the limits of their own powers—it is incident to all sovereignty. Now, have they given away that right, or agreed to limit or restrict it in any respect? Assuredly not. They have agreed that certain specific powers shall be exercised by the Federal Government; but the moment that government steps beyond the limits of its charter, the right of the States "to interpose for arresting the progress of the evil, and for maintaining, within their respective limits, the authorities, rights, and liberties, appertaining to them." is as full and complete as it was before the constitution was formed. It was plenary then, and never having been surrendered, must be plenary now. But what then, asks the gentleman? A State is brought into collision with the United States, in relation to the exercise of unconstitutional powers; who is to decide between them? Sir, it is the common case of difference of opinion between sovereigns as to the true construction of a compact. Does such a difference of opinion necessarily produce war? No. And if not, among rival nations, why should it do so among friendly States? . . .

The gentleman has called upon us to carry out our scheme practically. Now, sir, if I am correct in my view of this matter, then it follows, of course, that the right of a State being established, the Federal Government is bound to acquiesce in a solemn decision of a State, acting in its sovereign capacity, at least so far as to make an appeal to the people for an amendment to the constitution. . . . How, then, can any collision ensue between the Federal and State Governments, unless, indeed, the former should determine to enforce the law by unconstitutional means? . . .—*Register of Debates in Congress*, 21st Cong., 1st Sess., 87-91.

In these passages what is Webster's line of argument supporting the national theory and Hayne's line of argument supporting the federal theory? If the theory set forth by Hayne had prevailed, would it be easier or more difficult for our nation today to play its role in world leadership?

(Continued from page 302)

4. Palestine—Jews vs Arabs

5. Arabia—King Ibn Saud

VI. Plans for Security and Peace

A. World Court—created by League—settle problems sent to it

B. I.L.O.—International Labor Organization

1. Find information of world labor problems

2. Give suggestions for improvement of labor conditions

C. Washington Disarmament Conference—1921—9 nations

1. 5-5-3-1.6 ratio—Big Five

2. Four Power treaty to respect possessions in Pacific

3. Nine Power treaty guaranteeing independence of China

D. Pact of Paris—1928—15 nations renounce war—settle quarrels only by peaceful means

VII. Aftermath

A. 1933 — Germany withdraws from League and World Court

B. 1935—Germany announces U.M.T. and fortifies Rhine

Suggested Class Activities:

1. Text reading as basis of discussion

2. Map study and drill

3. Discussion

4. Oral reports

5. Visual aids—films, filmstrips, slides

6. Map drill on the new Europe

Suggested Home Work Activities:

1. Map—*Europe in World War I*. Show in block colors the Allied countries, Central Powers, neutral countries.

2. Topics for reports:

Alfred Nobel

Sergeant York

Lenin

Stalin

Trotsky

Trench warfare

Hindenberg

Versailles

The Big Four

The League of Nations

Ibn Saud

Kemal Pasha

World Court

I. L. O.

Washington Conference

Pact of Paris

3. Map—*Europe and Near East Before World War I*. Color the countries.

4. Map—*Europe and Near East After World War I*. Color the countries.

America Isn't a Self-Sufficient Nation by Any Means

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You may not realize it, but the government stockpiling and rearmament program may hit you even though you don't anticipate the blow. If you can't purchase the appliances or television set you want or if you find plastics or non-essential materials substituted for chrome or other vital metals in goods you buy, remember that the United States is not a self-sufficient nation.

Even prior to the war in Korea, the federal government had undertaken a vast stockpiling

program to make certain that strategic raw materials were available in case of an all-out war, and in the past few months it has reduced the quantity of metals available to manufacturers of civilian goods in order to divert needed raw materials to war industries.

In normal times, the United States produces nearly half of the world's supply of raw materials, but we consume as much as the rest of the world combined. Surprisingly enough, however, the United States must look to other

areas for certain raw materials and minerals which are essential in a defense economy.

Looking back to the experiences of the last war, the government began a stock-piling program during the summer of 1939 and sought to develop synthetic industries, uncover new processes of treating low-grade domestic ores and to control exports under a licensing system. On June 28, 1940, the Metals Reserve Company, a subsidiary of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, was established to engage in the production, acquisition, and distribution of strategic materials. The original program called for the stockpiling of tin and manganese, but by 1944 the program had been expanded to include 49 commodities and, by October 31, 1944, the Corporation had expended \$2,041,350,000 in acquiring a whole host of raw materials and minerals which included manganese, tin, bauxite, mercury, nickel, and lead.

Today, although our situation in respect to raw materials somewhat parallels 1939-1940, the United States is immeasurably better off. Nevertheless, from the Far East comes tin, rubber, bauxite, and tungsten, and from Europe comes chromite. From Africa we acquire 80 per cent of our cobalt, 47 per cent of our manganese and much of our uranium, while from Mexico we receive lead, from Canada nickel, and from South America bauxite, copper, tin, tungsten, manganese, and lead.

The outbreak of war in Korea in mid-1950, brought with it an historic shift in United States trade with foreign countries as America sought to stockpile and to rearm. Imports into the United States in 1950 approximated \$9 billion or \$2.5 billion more than in 1949, an increase of 38 per cent. However, a considerable proportion of the increase is reflected in price rises on such imported commodities as tin, rubber, coffee, wool, and cocoa.

A collateral effect of imports into the United States has been the improvement in the dollar situation of many foreign countries. Purchases, particularly of nickel, have permitted Canada to remove most of its restrictions on trade with the United States, and dollar gains by sterling areas may permit Australia and South Africa to ease their import curbs on American products. The dollar flow into South America has likewise eased the situation there and is ex-

pected to result in more liberal import permits for United States goods.

In the non-metals field, the demand for wool in the United States has substantially increased the costs of clothing manufacturers and the price of wool clothing to consumers, yet to Australia it has proved a boon. Among the world's top fleece producers, Australian ranchers are exporting more and more wool, and during the 1950-1951 season such exports were expected to total more than one billion pounds. One type of Australian wool, which sold at approximately 52 cents per pound during 1939-1940, was quoted at \$1.08 in September, 1949. From there it began a steady climb until it sold for \$3.38 per pound in January, 1951, an increase of some 550 per cent over the prewar price level.

On the other hand, English manufacturers, in need of raw materials, are hard hit by the United States stockpiling program and are having difficulties in acquiring essential raw materials and minerals. Through Marshall Plan aid, the British government has been able to achieve a reasonable degree of economic stability but is now faced with severe shortages of nickel, zinc, and copper and has had to pay high prices for that supply which is available in world markets because of the competition from the United States and other western powers. Then, too, because Britain is largely dependent upon the United States for cotton and sulphur, the expansion of industry in the United States has curtailed exports of these items to Great Britain. British manufacturers are also short of tin plate which is badly needed by food canners but it should be noted, at this point, that tin plate is made up mostly of steel with a slight coating of tin.

Tin is also in short supply in so far as the United States is concerned. During 1949, the United States produced about 68 tons of tin at home while importing approximately 98,500 tons from Bolivia, the Belgian Congo, Indonesia, and Malaya. Last June, just before the outbreak of the Korean war, tin cost about \$0.76 per pound and it is now selling for about \$1.75 per pound, an increase of more than 130 per cent in six months. Since the Far East is the primary supplier of tin for United States industry, the constant menace of war in that area obviously requires substantial stockpiling

of this important metal. Tin has many uses. It goes into tin cans, kitchen ware, and roofing; it is used in solder, collapsible tubes, foil, type metal, pewter, and for galvanizing; as stannic chloride (SnCl_4) it is used in fabric dyeing, weighting silk, and reviving colors; and as stannic oxide (SnO_2) it is used in putty, nail polishes, enamels and pottery.

Natural rubber is another thorn in the side of industry and government. A year ago, rubber from the Far East sold for \$0.18 a pound in New York and it now sells for \$0.68 per pound. In 1941, when rubber imports to the United States from the Far East were cut off by the Japanese invasion of the rubber-producing areas of the Far East, the situation was indeed critical. In fact, gasoline rationing was introduced not because of the threatened shortage of gasoline but because of the necessity to conserve rubber. Today, the synthetic rubber industry possesses a rated capacity of approximately 900,000 tons as compared to a production of 3,559 tons in 1942 and, in other areas, industry and science have begun to close the gap between the need for, and the availability of, raw materials. For example, manufacturers of nylon, a synthetic fiber used in parachutes, sutures, powder bags, glider tow ropes, and many other vital war supplies, produced a total of some 3 million pounds of this valuable synthetic in 1940, but ten years later they were producing at an annual rate of 200 million pounds. But, not only does the Far East send us tin and rubber but it is a supplier of quinine, shellac, coconut oil, copra, mercury, pepper, antimony, and tungsten.

Let's look for a moment at the matter of coconut oil. Many people think of coconuts as something which monkeys throw at tourists but to the munitions industry it is an important component because the coconut yields glycerine which goes into explosives. Coconut oil is also used in the manufacture of soap, synthetic rubber, and insecticides. In the matter of tungsten, the United States produces about 1,500 tons while approximately 3,100 tons come from China, Brazil, Bolivia, Spain, and Siam. Tungsten is important to war industries in the production of high-speed cutting tools, magnets, and other essentials.

With the nations of the West in a process of industrial and manpower mobilization to

meet aggression, the obvious solution to the raw materials situation is the establishment of a Combined Raw Materials Board similar to that which operated during World War II. Under this plan, the United States and Great Britain accepted the responsibility for the procurement of various essential materials. In the matter of rubber, for example, Great Britain undertook the acquisition of natural rubber from Africa and those far eastern areas not controlled by the Japanese while the United States sought to acquire natural rubber from Liberia and South America. Today, such a board might allocate essential materials to the countries which would most efficiently use them and which have the industrial capacity to handle them and would cut down on the competition for such materials in world markets. In fact, President Truman and French Premier Rene Pleven recently agreed that the utmost speed and vigor was needed to allocate necessary raw materials, in view of rising prices and the competition between countries for such essentials.

The curtailments ordered in the use of various critical materials for civilian consumption as a whole have been substantial in recent months. The civilian use of nickel, aluminum, zinc, and copper has been cut in varying amounts up to 35 per cent and it has been estimated recently that the government has already stockpiled as much as 400,000 tons of copper and 475,000 tons of zinc. Each of these metals has many important uses.

Zinc, which is just another metal to most Americans, is man's great ally against corrosion and is widely used in galvanizing iron and steel. Among the products galvanized are wire, cable, roofs, culverts, tanks, pipes, pans, and pails. It is used as an alloy with copper to make brass and brass is used to make shell casings. Zinc goes into die castings, storage batteries, boiler plates, and pigments for the manufacture of paints. Zinc chloride is used in disinfecting, wood preserving, and in fireproofing. Nickel, associated with the five-cent piece, is an important alloy, since it has great tensile strength and is used in many special types of steel. In stainless steel, 8 per cent nickel and 18 per cent chromium are alloyed with low-carbon steel to make among other things surgical instruments. Nickel is also used

in storage batteries, telegraph magnets, lighting rod tips, spark plugs, machinery parts and machine bearings, and as a catalyst in the hydrogenation of oils.

Aluminum, known to all of us, goes into aluminum foil, table and kitchen utensils, tubes, roofing and structures, and dental alloys, and is the backbone of the airplane industry. A walkie-talkie radio set contains about four pounds of aluminum. Copper, one of the oldest metals known to man, is widely used in the electrical industry because of its great conductivity. It goes into coils, roofing, boilers, paper clips, zippers, colored glass, and pipe. Three tons of this metal go into a single steam locomotive.

Like any other democracy, the United States has been slow in taking the appropriate steps to assure an adequate supply of raw materials and supplies but we have now recognized the dangers to democracy, and although stockpiling means a lesser supply of consumer goods, the American public must accept such inconveniences in order to preserve its way of life. Fortunately for us, scientists have developed a host of synthetic industries which leaves us in a far stronger position than we were in eleven years ago in relation to the raw material supply from abroad. Nevertheless, America is not a self-sufficient nation.

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

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In the course of a discussion on group dynamics a teacher posed an interesting question. In connection with a curriculum revision program started by her school, the students, most of whom came from underprivileged homes, were asked to fill out a specially prepared questionnaire. The particular problem presented by this teacher centered on the rather frank and unashamed attitude of many of the girls on pre-marital sex relations. Not a few of them felt very strongly that if they did not have intercourse by the time they graduated, something was wrong with them. They cited the argument, very important to them, that if they were to behave in accordance with the accepted *mores* regarding sex they would be very unpopular both with their boy friends and their girl friends. How could the school go about changing the group dynamics of such a situation?

The discussion which followed did not center on the sex issue, but rather on the broad problems of group dynamics involved in situations where standards of value of a group (students) are radically different from what society (the school) thinks they should be.

Research in the psychological sciences in the

last several decades seems to have established beyond any doubt that every person's behavior is motivated by certain psychological needs, of which the need for group approval is one of the foremost. In any kind of social organization the individual cannot be happy or have peace of mind unless he feels that the immediate group to which he belongs and which he considers important accepts him as an honored member. Non-literate peoples, for example, rely more upon informal group approval or disapproval for the maintenance of social order than upon organized policing of its members. The mere fear that one's misdeeds might become known is frequently a greater punishment than the actual administration of corrective measures. In our culture, also, the power of informal (as well as formal) group pressure upon an individual's behavior is tremendous. To the nine-year-old boy, for example, the gang represents the group which determines many of his values. To the college student, the fraternity serves a similar purpose.

People, of course, belong to more than one group. Where the values approved by the different groups are not in conflict, the individual finds membership in them little disrupting to

his well being, except perhaps when he has to give to them more of his time than he can spare. A man may, at the same time, be a member of the National Association of Manufacturers, the Chamber of Commerce, and the American Legion with little discomfort to his sense of loyalty. All three groups espouse values generally in agreement with each other. But when the values of two or more organizations are in conflict, a person cannot belong to all of them unless he is in a sense a dual or multiple personality. A person cannot, for example, belong to the Communist party, believe wholeheartedly in its teachings, and at the same time belong to the Republican or Democratic party and believe just as wholeheartedly in their principles.

Fortunately, the individual does have some choice in the selection of certain groups in which he has membership. One may or may not elect to join a fraternity, a sorority, or a professional organization. Frequently people accept membership in such groups even though they may not be in full agreement with the principles or values espoused by them. They may do so for professional or other reasons. But, it is recognized that membership under such circumstances may cause the individual considerable irritation and displeasure.

The big problem that many individuals face in connection with membership in various groups centers upon the conflict in values between those groups which claim them by virtue of their birth and those they wish to enter by choice. Perhaps the sorriest individual is one who by seeking entrance into one group feels that he is losing his good standing in another, when the latter's approval is still important to him.

What are the social organizations to which the individual is born and whose approval is important to his happiness and peace of mind? First, naturally, is the family. Race and religion represent, in a sense, the larger aspects of this same group. One cannot, of course, leave his race. It is with great difficulty, also, that one can leave, even if he should want to, the large group represented by his family, relatives and their circles of friends and associates which make up the various strata of our society. Although as a society of the whole we

subscribe to certain values and standards pertaining to interpersonal and intergroup relations, there are significant differences among these strata. These differences are made painfully known to any individual who tries to leave one stratum and enter into another two or more steps removed. The Kinsey Report significantly pointed out, for example, the variations in sex practices and sex standards between groups differing in educational and social status in our society.

A very important factor pertaining to this aspect of group dynamics is that the standards of values of any one group become emotionally charged as they evolve over a period of years or generations. It is difficult for the Chinese to give up ancestor worship because this practice has been emotionally linked to their very existence. No matter how much Maggie may want to educate Jiggs to appreciate and accept opera, she cannot succeed, because Jiggs' whole emotional life has been conditioned to the values represented by Dinty Moore and his associates. Even Maggie, we know inwardly, when she lets her hair down enjoys a good pail of corned beef and cabbage.

Now the question is: How does all this relate to the problem of teacher-pupil relationships? The answer is quite obvious. Students have certain values and teachers have certain values. Frequently, and in most classroom situations, as Allison Davis pointed out, teachers and pupils come from groups whose values differ considerably, as in the case of the teacher who raised the initial question.

If we now link the two basic factors—one, that values are emotionally charged, and two, that all individuals seek approval from the group to which they belong or wish to belong—we recognize significant implications in what we as teachers have to do. We must understand, and sympathetically, that what we may consider a very important value (as represented by the group to which we belong, or wish to belong, and from which we seek approval) may be completely incomprehensible to our students who belong to groups whose values differ from ours, and from which groups they also seek approval. The recent incident in West Point, for example, represents an excellent illustration of a conflict in values between two dif-

ferent groups. To the students who were ousted, "cribbing" apparently had seemed less objectionable than giving up some of the other values associated with membership on the football squad. For many years (and many teachers still feel strongly about it) school authorities felt that no student should play football or participate in any other competitive sport unless he made certain grades in his academic subjects. Many teachers, cannot or refuse to, understand how playing football to a youngster of sixteen or seventeen can be more important than studying history or mathematics, or Latin. What these teachers fail to recognize is that by playing football a young man gets far more recognition from, and gains a higher status in, the groups he considers important than from getting good grades in Latin or geometry. Of course, our whole system of values may be wrong somewhere.

Much more serious than the differences that come from athletic *vs.* academic values are the differences that come from the social backgrounds of many of the teachers and the majority of students. Teachers generally represent the middle social stratum. Frequently, as far as values are concerned, the teacher may aspire for recognition or approval by the social stratum above that in which he was born or belongs. Many students, on the other hand, particularly those that come from the underprivileged homes, represent social strata below that of their teachers. A conflict in values is, therefore, inevitable.

Right or wrong, we have assumed as our duty, as agents of society whose basic values are determined by the upper group, that we should change the values of our students. If a student cheats, we must teach him that cheating is wrong. If a boy kicks a girl, we must teach him that a gentleman doesn't kick a lady. If a young man walks in the hallway with his arm around a girl we must (or has this been changed somewhat?) teach them that such behavior is improper in a public building.

Although values are emotionally charged, some are less so and some more so than others. A boy may easily accept the fact that it is wrong for him to kick a girl. If he stops doing that, he does not suffer too much loss of status from the group or groups to which he belongs

and whose approval is important to him. But a boy or girl may not be ready to accept that it is wrong for them to stay out late, or engage in heavy "petting." Both biological forces and the group whose approval they value support them in this type of behavior. They would be regarded as "sissies" and "queers" if they were to suddenly change.

We may not fully realize it, but there would be serious consequences if we as teachers were fully successful in having our students discard all their old values and adopt ours. Many of them would feel like the poor crow who painted its feathers white in order to be among the pigeons. Like the crow, people who change their values too radically may find that they are wanted neither by the upper group whose values they adopted nor by the lower group whose values they discarded. They become outcasts, renegades, people without countries, so to speak. In other words, the approach must be gradual. Values of individuals must be changed slowly. More important, perhaps, must be the efforts directed to change the values of the groups from which the students come. That of course is a problem of the larger community, but one in which the schools, through parent teacher organizations and leadership by administrators, can take a significant part.

It is not to be implied from what has been said that teachers should stop trying to change some of the values of our students. What is implied is that the job of doing that requires a sympathetic understanding on the part of the teachers of what is involved in the attempt, in terms both of individual pupil happiness and well being, as well as ultimate social good. We cannot expect boys or girls to discard values which gain for them approval by groups important to them, unless we can have them accept and be accepted by other groups whose values we wish them to adopt.

FROM THE BOUND FILES

"One of the chief causes of inadequate teaching [in colleges] is that it is felt necessary to appear to the students and to the scholarly world as a scholar."—Wm. H. Ellison (Feb., 1935)

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

Freshen your democracy teaching approach the visual way, with help from "102 Motion Pictures on Democracy," the new Office of Education pamphlet. It is an excellent source for 16 mm. sound films on the background, meaning, and processes of democracy in the U.S.A. Write to Supt. of Documents, Gov't. Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., 20 cents.

FILMS

Beginning of History. 46 minutes. 16 mm. sound. International Film Bureau, 6 No. Michigan Ave., Chicago 2, Ill.

Emergence of man and the beginning of civilization. Sequence of events in prehistoric Britain down to the coming of the Romans.

Understanding the Swiss. 2 reels, color, \$85. Associated Film Artists, 30 N. Raymond Ave., Pasadena, California.

Reveals the story of a nation, its environment, its work, its government, its people. The democratic organization of government is shown in beautifully animated charts.

Understanding the Chinese. 2 reels, color, \$95. Associated Film Artists.

This is an interpretation of life in present day China. The film work was completed while the iron curtain was dropping on this section of the world.

Causes and Immediate Effects of the First World War. 18 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase. Knowledge Builders, 625 Madison Ave., New York 22, N. Y.

Story of the first world war, starting with Bismarck's formation of the Triple Alliance, and continuing through the Treaties of Versailles, St. Germaine, etc.

Lincoln Speaks at Gettysburg. 10 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase or rent. A. F. Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y.

Uses hundreds of contemporary engravings and drawings to recreate the historical moment when this famous speech was given.

America and the Immigrant. 17 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase or rent. March of Time

Forum Films, 369 Lexington Ave., New York 17, N. Y.

Introduces the students to some of the immigrants from diverse nations and proves their contributions to our democracy.

Assignment Germany. 14 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Loan, U. S. Army; purchase, United World Films, 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y.

Shows the soldiers' part in the physical, political, and economic reconstruction of Germany today.

Beginning or the End. 30 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Rent. Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 W. 43 St., New York 18, N. Y.

Traces the development of the atomic bomb, and depicts the scientists and statesmen who participated in its development.

A Day in Congress. 18 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase. Instructional Films, Inc., 330 W. 42 St., New York, N. Y.

Intimate documentation of what actually transpires during a typical day in the U. S. Congress. Shows the processes of lawmaking in a free society.

Due Process of Law Denied. 29 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Rent. Teaching Film Custodians.

The Ox-Bow incident, showing the dangers of denying the due process of law, and the need to recognize the Constitutional rights of the individual.

Family: An Approach to Peace. 19 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Apply, March of Time.

Documentary treatment of the problem of world peace and its basic reliance upon the ordinary family as the doorway to international peace, cooperation and understanding.

Federal Reserve System. 17 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Illinois.

Purpose and functions of the Federal Reserve System graphically explained. Covers the period from the money panic of 1907 through World War II.

For All the World's Children. 30 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Rent. United Nations, Film and Audiovisual Information Division, Lake Success, N. Y.

Shows world-wide activities of UNICEF; distribution of supplies from one side of the world to eventual feeding operations in the other.

Japan and Democracy. 18 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase or rent. March of Time Forum Films.

Candid report on our nation's program for educating the more than 81 million people of Japan to the ways of democracy.

Justice Under Law. 30 minutes. 16 mm sound. Rent. Teaching Film Custodians.

Emphasizes the ideal of justice under American law and shows a true case in which a prosecuting attorney fulfilled his duty.

Unsung Heroes. 61 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase or rent. Nu Art Films, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

Story of war dogs and the training they received to fight the enemies of democracy.

Our Stand in Korea. 20 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase. United World Film.

Beginning with the assault on the Republic of Korea, June 24, presents a chronological report of events in the Korean crisis.

People Next Door. 16 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Apply, British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.

Shows how the common man of Europe is helping to bring about better international understanding through travel to other countries.

Promise of Pakistan. 17 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase or rent. March of Time Forum Films.

Gives an introduction to a new country born August 15, 1947, and its entry into the United Nations.

Sweden Looks Ahead. 18 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase or rent. March of Time Forum Films.

Many aspects of Sweden's economic development are shown—controlled lumbering, arable lands, distribution system, progressive labor unions, and types of co-operatives.

This is the United Nations—I. 15 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Rent. UN Film Division.

Reveals the story behind the headlines: General Assembly Acts to Make Jerusalem an International Area; The Nations Fight TB—225 Million Children Tested, etc.

What Is a City? 10 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase or rent. Bailey Films, Inc., P.O. Box 2528, Hollywood 28, California.

Location and growth of cities in terms of needs of the people and the work they do.

U. S. Customs Safeguards Our Foreign Trade. 16 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Purchase. Frith Films, 1816 N. Highland Ave., Hollywood 28, California.

Depicts the protection of the U. S. international trade at boundaries and ports of entry; also shows airport procedure.

U. S. Defense Against Foreign Plague. 11 minutes. 16 mm. sound. Color. Purchase. Frith Films.

Shows how government prevents the diseases from being carried into the U. S.

FILMSTRIPS AND SLIDES

Federal Courts and Law Enforcement. 40 frames. 35 filmstrip. Purchase. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Text-Film Dept., 330 W. 42 St., New York 18, N. Y.

Depicts various types of federal courts and the areas of jurisdiction. Shows also the principal activities of the Department of Justice in enforcement of federal laws.

Federal Finance. 42 frames. 35 filmstrip. Purchase. McGraw-Hill Book Co.

Steps involved in the financial support of the federal government, and the various kinds of taxes needed to run our government.

Political Parties and Elections. 39 frames. 35 filmstrip. Purchase, McGraw-Hill Book Co.

Reveals objectives and functions of political parties in nominating and electing candidates for office.

Our Nation's Inventory. (The Census) Black and white. 34 frames. Silent. Captions on each frame with guide, \$3.00.

Shows why a census is important, how it is taken, and how the information obtained is put to use. Write to Current Affairs Films, 18 E. 41 St., New York 17, N. Y.

Pivot of Asia. 56 black and white frames. Teacher's guide and discussion manual available, \$2.00. Office of Education Activities, *The New York Times*, Times Square, New York 18, N. Y.

Traces the rise of the British Empire, covers the successful struggle for independence and the creation of the republic of India and Pakistan, depicts the conflict between India and Pakistan. The question is raised whether India and Pakistan will work together to lead Asia toward a democratic future which will prevent the spread of communism.

Uneasy Borders of Communism. 56 black and white frames. 35 filmstrip. Purchase \$2.00.

The New York Times.

In the light of the Communist aggression in Korea, surveys the area in Asia and Europe where there is danger that this pattern of aggression by a Russian satellite may be repeated, or where World War III may break out.

Panorama of the United States. 1944, 75 frames, \$1.50. American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C.

Overall view of the United States, showing the physical and climatic differences which exist among the different regions.

Indians of the Southwest. 1944, 47 frames, \$1.50. American Council on Education.

Presents a general picture of life of the Indian tribes living in the southwest from the time the Spaniards came to the present.

Rural Electrification. 1944, 47 frames, \$1.50. American Council on Education.

Shows the importance of electric power to rural areas, and contrasts farmwork before and after electrification.

Soil Conservation. 1944, 51 frames, \$1.50. American Council on Education.

Deals with major factors in a soil conservation program—flood and erosion control, planned tree planting, crop rotation, contour plowing, etc.

Clearing the Slums. 1944, 43 frames, \$1.50. American Council on Education

Shows slum areas and the public housing projects which have replaced them. Stresses the benefits to individuals and the community when slums are cleared and replaced by adequate housing facilities.

RECORDINGS

"The Quick and the Dead. . . The Story of the Atom Bomb."

"The Quick and the Dead. . . The Story of the Hydrogen Bomb." Each one a one-hour recording of the radio broadcast of the same

name. Written and directed by Fred Friendly and featuring explanations by Wm. L. Laurence. RCA-Victor, Camden, N. J. Numbers LM 1129 and LM 1130 at 33 1/3 r.p.m., VM 1507 and VM 1508 at 78 r.p.m.

The first of these discs introduces the techniques followed in both. Bob Hope, acting as the inquisitive man, poses questions concerning the history and development of the atom bomb. Mr. Laurence describes the race in the developments of the super-bomb.

The second disc has meaning only after the first is understood. Here emphasis is placed on the present and potential peacetime services of new physical advances as the world makes its choice between "the quick and the dead." "This is the U.N. Album," 78 r.p.m. at \$13.90, 33 1/3 r.p.m. at \$11.75. Purchase. Tribune Productions, Inc., 40 E. 49 St., New York 17, N. Y.

With Franchot Tone as narrator, hear 55 of the world's great authentic voices telling the authentic story of the U.N. through speech, drama, action, realism.

PICTURES (facsimiles)

The following facsimiles are photographic reproductions. These may be ordered from the National Archives, Room 100, Washington, D. C. Money orders should be made payable to the Treasurer of the U. S.

1. Appeal to Masons for Funds for Washington Monument, 1853. (11" x 14") 20 cents.
2. Photograph of John J. Pershing, 1921. (8" x 10") 20 cents.
3. Photograph of Dwight D. Eisenhower, 1950. (8" x 10") 20 cents.
4. Petition of Authors and Publishers for a Copyright Treaty, 1880. (10" x 12") 20 cents.

FROM THE BOUND FILES

"The cause of this growth in [education's] vocabulary seems to be found not so much in the desire to express new and finer distinctions as in the ignorance of the fact that previous educators have wrestled with similar problems, and found current words quite adequate for the purpose of conveying their pedagogical ideas."—Edgar B. Wesley (The Social Studies, Mar., 1936)

News and Comment

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

SLAVERY IN THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD

The very idea of slavery existing at the present time is shocking. Its existence within our borders and its incidence throughout the world is described by Albert Konrad Herling in *The Survey* (September 1951). Here in the United States we find peonage which is a form of debt slavery and a violation of the Thirteenth Amendment. Peonage occurs among the share croppers of the Deep South, among the workers of the lumber and turpentine areas of Georgia and Florida and among tenant-farmers in the truck and beet sugar fields. These victims are intimidated by accumulating debts.

Another kind of peonage is the official practice of making arrests for alleged "vagrancy." Longshoremen on their day off have been arrested, charged with vagrancy and forced to work off their fines in the vegetable fields of Florida. However, these unfortunates are not without a champion. The Workers Defense League is familiar with their problems and upon occasion brings suit against the people who would cheat them.

The third type of peonage found in the Land of the Free involves the Mexican "wetback" who is intimidated by threats of imprisonment and deportation and thus held in bondage.

Just as the laws of the United States of North America prohibit slavery so the legal codes of our Latin American neighbors forbid it. In both regions the laws are violated. In South America the systems generally in effect combine debt slavery and serfdom.

Just as the victims of debt slavery in the North are the concern of the Workers Defense League so those in Latin America are not without powerful friends.

In a study made by Professor Moises Poblete Troncoso for the Ad Hoc Committee on Slavery of the United Nations Economic and Social Council, he reported that in Peru, *yanacones* are employed to work on rice, sugar and rice plantations. The groups of these workers and the individuals within the groups are under

contract to the plantation owner. However, the remarkable feature about this contract is its imposition of

"a unilateral obligation upon the Indian, and carries an additional burden involving the family of the *yanacon* and his *descendants*, for the women and sons are also obliged to work for the proprietor."

Professor Troncoso also reported that neither the amount of the wage nor the duration of the contract are specified and that many of these contracts have been handed down from father to son.

In the same country another form of servitude is called *pongueaje*, in which the Peruvian Indian is obliged to work for a landowner without pay for as much as five days a week, in return for a small plot of land which the Indian holds for his labor and can cultivate in his meagre spare time. Because this relationship between the Indian and the plantation owner is inherited by his children, they cannot free themselves from its chains. Other forms of slavery are also practiced in contemporary Peru but they have not been described in this article.

In Bolivia, certain types of compulsory servitude have been abolished but others have been more firmly entrenched. The International Labor Organization reported a description of the most common system of compulsory servitude in Bolivia, although it also applies to other South American countries.

"The estate owner gives him (the native *aparcero*) the usufruct of a parcel of land, the payment for which consists in (a) part of the harvest handed over direct and the rest sold to the owner at the price he fixes. . . . (b) a specified number of days of work in the field, to which is sometimes added the payment of tithe or the compulsory performance of unpaid personal or domestic services in the landowner's house or on his estate."

With the exception of Spanish Morocco, the countries of Africa have abolished slavery

legally. The institution of slavery, however, continues to thrive in Africa. An illegal slave trade flourishes between Africa and the Middle East. Native Africans are consigned to the slave markets in Yemen and Saudi Arabia and other small nations of the Middle East. Most of the Moslem countries along the Persian Gulf still maintain chattel slavery.

However, in other places, different systems of bondage have been discovered. For example, Liberia is the place where the practice of pawning relatives is common. In this country a person applying for a loan may pledge a relative and his labor to the lender. The results are not much different from old fashioned slavery.

Mr. Herling states that the countries mentioned above are not the only ones in which compulsory servitude occurs. Forced or compulsory labor exists in most, if not all, of the colonial areas and even in the U.N. trusteeship areas.

The Belgian government has made great efforts toward the improvement of the conditions in the Belgian Congo. Portuguese Angola, however, may be compared to the Belgian Congo of 1895, on the basis of the status of its native population. In Angola, skilled workmen have been compelled to work for years without any remuneration. The Portuguese government metes speedy and severe punishment to critics of this system.

In the Union of South Africa the racial policies of the old Boers are today carried to extremes comparable only to Hitler's. During the second World War, the Boers openly supported Nazism. However, they do not want to exterminate the Bantus because the Bantus are the chief source of labor supply and to eliminate them would ruin South Africa's economy.

The South African policy of keeping the blacks segregated from the whites is a factor in keeping the economic status of the former as low as is consistent with national safety.

"The agricultural areas are full of prisons for natives constructed or financed by the white farmers. At harvest time the prisoners are shipped to the various farms in order to reap the harvest."

After the harvesting has been completed the

unfortunate blacks are returned to prison.

In the Far East, *Mui tsai*, child-selling for adoption, is a common form of servitude. Its origin is poverty, and as a memorandum from the Secretary General of the United Nations has pointed out "the alternative for the parents may well be death by starvation."

Compulsory servitude in the Soviet Union has some peculiar characteristics. The system of forced labor developed as a result of the failure of the penological approach tried there, the ruthless suppression of dissenting political activity and opinion, and the imposition of collective agriculture on an unwilling populace.

The whole range of industrial enterprises uses forced labor under the direct command of the secret police. The system is unique in being adapted to twentieth century industrial civilization. Forced labor under the eye of the secret police has built the great canals and the tremendous hydro-electric plants in Russia. Actual political opponents, who have been doomed to places within this compulsory labor force, have been brutally treated and have been placed on starvation diets. For example, lumberjacks and loggers in a large camp near Archangel receive a 1,200 calorie daily ration in contrast to the minimum 5,000 calorie ration required for an American lumberjack. The disease and death rates in such Russian camps is high.

The article by Mr. Herling concludes with nine recommendations for ameliorating the problem of human bondage in the world today. These seem sufficiently important to quote in toto:

1. Education of the general population as to the extent and the forms of slavery existing in the world today.
2. General support for such organizations as the British Anti-Slavery Society and the Aborigines Friend, Les Amies de l' Abbe Gregoire, the Commission of Inquiry into Forced Labor, the Workers Defense League, and similar organizations working against the exploitation of human beings.
3. Adoption by the United Nations of the recommendations of the Ad Hoc Committee on Slavery to establish a permanent slave commission.
4. Establishment of a code of international law

with enforcement powers to strike down slavery in all its forms.

5. Genuine support by all countries of the efforts of the newly formed Ad Hoc Committee on Forced Labor in carrying out a joint investigation by the United Nations and International Labor Organization.
6. Calling of an international congress of individuals and organizations interested in all aspects of slavery for the purpose of establishing an international abolitionist movement.
7. The development in each country of organization concerned with the problem at home.
8. The implementation of the United States Point Four program and the United Nations technical assistance to underdeveloped countries.
9. The development of an international program of land reform as basic to a solution of the problem in countries outside of the Soviet Union.

THE WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION

W.H.O. publishes a *Newsletter*. The issue for May-June-July 1951 contains special features concerning the adoption of unified international sanitary regulations to govern world trade and travel, the regional organization established for the Western Pacific, a survey of poliomyelitis rates on five continents, and the guiding principles established for W.H.O. programs in Europe.

The *Newsletter* is an attractive leaflet, illustrated with interesting pictures and printed in very black type on paper with no shine to its surface. The news articles are dramatically written, for example, here are the headlines of two articles: "15 cents a Head to Fight Malaria," "31½ cents to Stop Plague."

HAITI PILOT PROJECT

The Haiti Pilot Project Phase One 1947-1949 is a provoking Monograph on Fundamental Education. It is published by *Unesco* (Publication No. 796.)

The Republic of Haiti is plagued with social and economic problems—tropical diseases, soil erosion, malnutrition, poverty and overpopulation.

Haiti is a member of the United Nations and of *Unesco*. Its government, aware of the urgency of its problems and of the help *Unesco*

could give in reducing illiteracy, sought its help.

Unesco has set up a limited number of "Pilot Projects" which are concentrated experiments in fundamental education. They are carried on cooperatively by National Governments with *Unesco*.

In 1947 the Haitian Government drew up a plan for a pilot project in fundamental education. The site selected for the project was in the southern part of Haiti, a rural area called Marbial, situated in the middle of the Gosse-line River valley.

The Pilot Project seeks to enable the people, in adjusting to their changing environment, to develop the best elements in their own culture and to achieve a higher economic and social standard of living.

First the *Unesco* experts survey the local geographical, ethnical and social conditions. Then, based upon this survey, they develop a program of fundamental education for children and adults.

In this program, the *Unesco* experts carry out experimental application and test out new methods of fundamental education. The results of these experiments are then made available both to the cooperating nation, in this case, Haiti, and to *Unesco's* other Member States.

For the Haiti enterprise *Unesco* personnel prepare sample educational materials in Creole and French for teaching essential knowledge and skills. They conduct experiments in the use of audio-visual media for fundamental education and progressively eliminate illiteracy by methods of mass education. They develop schools and adult education centers. *Unesco* field workers also establish a training center in which rural teachers, whether in the Project or not, and local field workers are given instruction in methods of fundamental education.

Unesco and the cooperating country, Haiti, together enlist the help of other specialized agencies. For example, to improve the health of the natives, Haiti and *Unesco* call upon the World Health Organization. The last mentioned presents a demonstration program on the application of methods of tropical medicine and community and individual hygiene. Public Health workers are trained for the continued application of these methods.

Other organizations are asked for help to educate the natives in the development and

improvement of agriculture. The people learn to improve their production and to develop and conserve their natural resources.

To raise the standard of living the experts endeavor to provide alternate livelihoods for the people by developing local crafts, small-scale rural industries and cooperative associations.

This monograph is illustrated with excellent maps and with photographs showing the feeding of children at the school canteens, reading lessons, an open air school, the new market

and the old, and a typical Haitian young peasant woman and an old peasant man. One is impressed with the ability of the experts to take the raw material that they have at hand and make striking improvements with meagre resources. The contrast between the new and old markets, for example, shows the order, neatness, and organization of the neat wooden, sheltered stalls in contrast to the lack of neatness, shelter and order of the old market.

The monograph offers impressive evidence of the tremendous practical good being accomplished by *Unesco* for human well-being.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

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Crimes Against International Law. By Joseph B. Keenan and Brendan F. Brown. Washington, D. C., Public Affairs Press, 1950. Pp. x, 161. \$3.25.

"Aggressive war is not only a physical, but also a moral and juridical occurrence." Applying this basic postulate, Joseph B. Keenan and Brendan F. Brown, the American legal representatives at the Tokyo War Crimes Trial, have sought in *Crimes Against International Law* to analyze the primary questions of law and morality surrounding the bringing of the guilty war leaders of Japan to the bar of justice for their shattering of world peace during World War II.

As if in rebuttal to William G. B. Carson's controversial *Case of General Yamashita*, the American advocates insist that the Tokyo Tribunal did not set up its own constitution, jurisdiction and trial procedure, nor did it define the crimes in question. The orderly functions and painstaking conduct of the Court were previously agreed upon by charter, with General Douglas MacArthur, the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers in the Pacific, empowered to establish the International Military Tribunal for the Far East. Indeed, the authors note that although the Tokyo Tribunal was the joint institution of eleven participating

nations, all with varying legal processes, the agreement on procedure reached before the trial, both in theory and fact, closely conformed to American ideas of justice.

Logically and concisely the authors deal with the right of the world community to punish Japan's war criminals; the distinction between a just war and the "criminality of aggressive war"; the crime of conspiracy and "genocide"; the difference in characteristics between "infractions of the law and customs of war" and "crimes against humanity." They meet squarely and use the examples of history to discard the defense argument that since international law had not provided sufficient definitions and procedures for the prosecution of war crimes and crimes against humanity, the judicial mechanism established at Tokyo constituted an *ex post facto* law.

The Tokyo Tribunal served as a forum for the conflict between two fundamentally irreconcilable types of legal thinking. Messrs. Keenan and Brown refuse to sanction the belief that the accused Japanese who had revolted against the international community were acting in the name of a sovereign state and thus were immune from individual responsibility. To have accepted the defense arguments at Tokyo, the authors reason, would

have been a recognition of the implied principle that the state may sanction a crime. This no civilized society can concede without destroying the very basis of the human community. The book maintains that the cause of future peace was furthered by bringing the Japanese henchmen to trial and by putting on record a moral and juridical evaluation of their acts.

The one fault that this reviewer finds with *Crimes Against International Law* is with the always vexing problem of errors in proof-reading: "jurisdiction" (p. 17); "John Bassett Moore" (p. 77); "penological" (p. 92); "positive" (p. 94); "may" (p. 115); and "Tokyo" (p. 139). The book is carefully documented and indexed and is based on an extensive range of source material.

HAROLD M. HELFMAN

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The Ohio State University

Confederate Leaders in the New South. By William B. Hesseltine. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1950. Pp. xi, 147. \$2.50.

This interesting little volume is another in the well-known series of The Walter Lynwood Fleming Lectures in Southern History sponsored annually by Louisiana State University. Like its predecessors, this group of lectures is of high quality and of great significance in the field, characterized more by its interpretive and suggestive qualities rather than by its depth. Examining a neglected subject, the post-Appomattox careers of a host of top-ranking civil and military leaders of the Confederacy, this study reveals the impact of these controversial figures on the new South.

Most students of Southern history are familiar with the lack of unity in the ante-bellum South and the cleavages among its leaders on the issues of secession, conduct of the war, and the aims of the states. Less well known is the continuance of this confusion of ends and means to these ends by most of these very same leaders after the collapse of the Confederacy. These cleavages—politically, economically, and socially—still leave a deep imprint upon the course of Southern history.

Although his treatment of each post-war career is fragmentary in scope, the author examines the adjustment to new conditions by

such men as Robert E. Lee, Jefferson Davis, Benjamin Palmer, Bishop Patrick K. Lynch, Robert Louis Dabney, Robert Toombs, Jubal A. Early, "the very embodiment of the unreconstructed rebel," James A. Longstreet, T. H. Logan, Thom Mumford, and others of greater or lesser note. Many of these individuals, faced with the collapse of the old political system and of the old economic order, found it necessary to compromise their avowed principles and to adjust their practices and ideas to a world and society in revolutionary change. Some fled rather than face this prospect, while others bowed completely to the conquerors and Yankee invaders. Most of them, however, either aligned themselves with Robert E. Lee and the building of a new South from out of the ruins and devastation of the war, or with Jefferson Davis and the perpetuation of the Lost Cause—the ideas, the values, the traditions, and even the myths of the old, ante-bellum South.

The author explores primarily the activities and attitudes of the ministers, educators, and the industrial managers among the former high-ranking Confederates. Only casual reference is made to other groups. Especially significant is the revelation that 418 out of 585 top military and civil leaders of the Confederacy came to hold appointive or elective offices in the postwar South. Defeat did not bring repudiation or oblivion for most of the Southern wartime leaders.

The reviewer highly recommends this study to all students of American history and particularly to all interested in this aspect of Southern history during the Reconstruction period.

JOHN L. HARR

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The American System of Government. Second Edition. By John H. Ferguson and Dean E. McHenry. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950. Pp. xii, 1042. \$5.00.

This is a comprehensive college text, dealing with every aspect of government in the United States. The introductory part is concerned with such things as background and principles. The second part discusses Congress, the Presidency, the Federal courts, and Federal powers

in general, while the third part explains the national administrative organization and functions. The final section is devoted to state and local government. According to the authors, the part having to do with state and local government was purposely made brief "with the thought that instructors will want to supplement it with materials bearing upon the state in which they and their students are located."

Because of demand for a briefer treatment of our government and its procedures, the authors have prepared a text entitled, *Elements of American Government*.

The portions dealing with the national government only is available in a separate volume, *The American Federal Government*, now also in the second edition.

One of the features of the revised second edition of *The American System of Government* is an expanded first chapter giving particular attention to the origin and nature of the state. Here is a table listing the major political units of the world as of January 1, 1950.

Among many other things, the volume now being reviewed discusses the recommendations of the Hoover commission regarding the Federal executive branch, Congressional reorganization, the Atlantic pact and military aid program, the government of occupied territories, and the United Nations.

Chapter Two, "Colonization, Independence, and Confederation," is a valuable commentary on early American history. Special emphasis is placed on the endeavor of the people of the Thirteen Colonies to set up a stable government for themselves.

Of the Founding Fathers, the authors write: "It is remarkable . . . that they succeeded in framing a fundamental law, that, with few amendments, has proved adaptable through a century and a half of revolutionary change."

Many will find interesting and informative reading in the discussion of county government, counties in the United States ranging in number from three in Delaware to 264 in Texas. Counties are said to exist in 46 states, but 47 appears to be the proper figure. In Louisiana the "parish" is essentially the county. Rhode Island has no true counties.

"Number and location of County and Township Governments is the title of a map appearing on p. 884. This is taken from "Governmental Units in the United States," *Bureau of the Census*, and indicates that states from New England to Kansas, inclusive, quite generally have their counties subdivided into smaller governmental units known as "towns" in New England, and as "townships" elsewhere in this area—an area comprising sixteen states. With the exception of Washington, the remaining states—those of the South and West—have no governmental units called "townships." Seemingly, Washington has but a few townships of this kind.

Under "Villages and Towns," this is set forth:

In addition to counties and cities, most areas have smaller urban or semiurban units of government . . . In the South and West "town" is the term oftenest used; In the Northeastern and Midwestern states, the term is "village." . . . Many have special charters, or are incorporated under general laws that are often referred to as the local charter. p. 890.

This passage is somewhat mystifying to the present writer. In his experience as a resident of various parts of our country, he has been accustomed to the use in legal phraseology of the term "city" for any incorporated place. For instance, the village of Podunk is denominated the "city of Podunk" in the Podunk charter. In conversation, the people of Podunk refer to their village as a "town." The expansive ideas of our village founders preclude the use of such a modest term as "village." Some villages have grown into cities. In the Middle West and the Far West, to call one's place of residence "the village" is to be jocular or derogatory. "Town" is the term in conversational use. There are small towns—even Westerners will admit that. Kansas City is a "big town," and so is New York. And others than Westerners employ this terminology. All the world knows London Town. Farmers "go to town." Within the city limits, we "go over town" when we visit the shopping district.

Following this excursion into the field of semantics, the reviewer will mention some chapters which to him seem especially informative and interesting. These are:

Population, Immigration, Aliens and
Citizenship
Public Opinion and Pressure Groups
Federal Powers, Foreign Relations and
War
The Civil Service
Foreign Policies and the United Nations
Federal Enterprises
Social Insurance, Education, and Welfare
Frontiers of Civic Responsibility

The book is an excellent one for use either as a text in courses in United States Government and Politics, International Relations, and Current History, or as collateral reading in such courses.

References follow each chapter and the work is well-indexed. The five appendices contain, respectively, the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, the United States Constitution, the Charter of the United Nations, and a list of visual materials.

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Curriculum Planning. By Edward A. Krug.
New York: Harper Brothers, Publishers,
1950. Pp. xi, 306. \$3.00.

This volume dealing with curricular problems should speedily attain a wide popularity. Not only is it well-adapted to the use of teachers and school administrators, but it is likewise suited to serve either as a college textbook or in helping to fill out a collateral reading list in certain education courses.

The author, a distinguished member of the University of Wisconsin faculty, thus indicates his point of view with reference to curriculum building:

It may be desirable to draw a distinction between curriculum development as a bandwagon movement on the one hand, and as a continuing responsibility on the other. (277)

As Dr. Krug understands it, the curriculum is the instrumentality by means of which "the schools seek to translate our hopes for education into concrete reality." (1) And the curriculum is envisioned as consisting of all the experiences of the learner for which the school is responsible.

The hopes mentioned in the preceding paragraph are somewhat fully expressed in terms of five urgent needs, substantially as follows:

(a) Elimination of cultural lag, or lessening the gap between material and social progress.

(b) Achievement on the part of the individual of a greater measure of mental health.

(c) Realization of the possibilities of democracy.

(d) Development of more active participation in community life on the part of all.

(e) Establishment of world peace, upon the permanence of which humanity's survival is conditioned. (1-2)

This last, of course, is closely related to the others, particularly, that of eliminating cultural lag.

With reference to humanity's survival, this singular quotation is given:

In order that the human race may survive on this planet, it is necessary that there should be enough people in enough places in the world who do not have to fight each other, who are not the kind of people who will fight each other, and who are the kind of people who will take effective measures when necessary to prevent other people fighting. (76)

(Brock Chisholm: "On the March for Mental Health," *Survey Graphic*, XXXVI (October, 1947), 509)

It may be that the quotation is made merely with humorous intent.

Two of the book's nine chapters are devoted to the telic function of education. These are Chapter II and Chapter III, entitled respectively, "Defining Educational Purposes," and "Relating Educational Purposes to the All-School Program."

In Chapter II emphasis is placed upon the fact that all attempts at curriculum planning are naturally influenced by the outlooks of the planners regarding human beings and their needs.

Chapter III contains a helpful discussion of "general" and "special" education. It is shown that all institutionalized education tends to be vocational, and that the term "vocational education" cannot logically be restricted only to those occupations involving manual labor.

Dr. Krug considers that the curriculum planner should take into account certain fundamental human desires. These, he thinks, are four in number: (a) The desire to belong. (b) The desire to participate. (c) The desire for status. (d) The desire for security.

The normal individual wishes to be a respected member of the group, to make a worthy contribution to the group, to be recognized as an important participant, and to have security in life and person.

According to the author, the attainment of objectives through schooling is to be brought about by emphasizing the qualities of self-reliance together with group co-operation. The goal is self-realization, but always with attention to group welfare.

The traditional outcomes or materials of education—information, knowledge, generalizations, understandings, attitudes—have values only as they are instrumental in the individual's problem-solving activities. (53)

J. F. SANTEE

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The Challenge of Democracy. By Theodore P. Blaich and Joseph C. Baumgartner. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950. Pp. xiv, 748. \$2.50.

This is the third edition of a problems of democracy text organized into twelve units—personality, economics, the home, consumer helps, social security, housing, the land, government, citizenship, government financing, human relations, and the world order. The new edition is essentially the same as the previous ones. Additions like the Taft-Hartley Act, developments in British socialism, the Housing Act of 1949, the Hoover Commission Report, and the work of the United Nations bring it up to date. Charts, such as federal tax collections, the national debt, governmental expenditures, and federal budgets, have been adjusted to 1950 figures. New pamphlets and books have been added to the reading lists.

IRA KREIDER

Abington High School
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History of the American Way. By Harold Underwood Faulkner, Tyler Kepner, and

Edward H. Merrill. New York: Harper Brothers, 1950. Pp. 745. \$2.50.

This high school history text is the third edition of the text formerly called *The American Way of Life*. In the first editions Mr. Hall Bartlett collaborated, so that four men have been responsible for this last edition.

The economic and social trends of our history are here handled in a masterly way, for Harold Underwood Faulkner has long been known as a leader in the economic interpretation of American history. This reviewer feels, however, that a little of the old and still important "great man" interpretation is also needed. Teen-agers want vivid personalities. No mention is made of Braddock, of Paul Revere, nor of Benedict Arnold. Where is Clay fighting for his compromises of 1820 and 1850? One does not even get a clear picture of Washington, for the French and Indian War is told in a few sentences and our Revolution is condensed into one and one half pages. The authors write, "There are villains as well as heroes and heroines." Try to find them!

Like Faulkner and Kepner's other and different high school history text, *America, Its History and People*, this one is also written in the topical or unit system—with more units and a greater departure from the chronological approach. The very first unit tells of the topography and natural resources of our country and then, after only half a page about England, whose people gave us "our language" and "the English way of life," it has almost twenty pages about *all* the later groups who came to our shores.

Stressing the recent at the expense of the earlier times is a trend which these authors follow to a large degree. The foundation of a building is still considered important; that of a country seems to have lost its significance. If one reads the two pages 186 and 188 (map between) we find the authors discuss elections from 1920 to 1948 inclusive. More than half a page is given to the one "remarkable" election of Truman while F. D. Roosevelt's four elections take less space. And this despite the breaking of the two-term tradition. That tradition is not mentioned at this point but is given two sentences under the study of the constitution. The Twenty-second amendment, proposed before this edition was written and

a really important current event, is not mentioned.

If New York State adopts the Schlesinger Report as given in the *New York Times* of December 24, 1950, it will give high schools three years of history divided evenly between World and American History. The report was unanimous on this point and was four to two for the chronological presentation of the material. Three semesters for American history will help solve the problem which must confront all history text book authors—what to delete and what to include. Teachers and students will hope the report is adopted generally, for the pleasure of history is greatly lessened and the understanding of it severely limited by the mere cold skeleton studied now.

The format of this edition is not greatly changed. The illustrations, maps, and graphs are plentiful. There is not, however, one colored map or picture in the book. The best map of the whole country has not room for the names of many of the largest cities in New England and the Middle States. Why not enlarge the map by using the margins or both pages? The graph on page 15 is misleading. One did not travel entirely by rail from Pittsburgh to New York in 1834. The map on page 257 depicting travel six years later would show that fallacy. The numerous aids for teachers are very good, particularly the old list of difficult words and phrases under the new caption, "Can you speak the Language of History?"

Peabody High School LILY LEE NIXON
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Leading Constitutional Decisions. By Robert E. Cushman. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Pp. xix, 410. Ninth Edition.

It was in 1925 that the first edition of Cushman's *Leading Constitutional Decisions* appeared. Coolidge was president and Taft presided as chief justice over the Supreme Court. Normalcy was triumphant. While change was considered as inevitable, it was not expected that it would take a violent and revolutionary course. But the past twenty-five years have brought depression, and world war, national social experiments and emergency war powers. Quite naturally vast changes have taken place in the content and principles of our constitu-

tional law. These are reflected in the case list of the latest edition of this valuable book. Of the forty-four opinions printed in the first edition only twenty-three remain. The twenty-eight decisions which have been added to the collection give evidence of the flexibility inherent in our constitution and of the adaptability of the justices who interpret it to new problems and conditions. Two major trends in our constitutional law stand out as one contrasts this edition with its predecessor of twenty-five years ago. One is the marked expansion of federal power which has taken place largely as a result of the court's liberal interpretation of the commerce, taxing and spending clauses of the constitution. The second is the writing of the constitutional law on civil liberty particularly as it has placed restraints upon the states in their relationship with their citizens in this vital area.

Five new cases are printed in this edition. *United Public Workers v. Mitchell* deals with the constitutional rights of our growing army of federal employees; *Everson v. Board of Education* is concerned with the problem of public support of private religious institutions; *Shelley v. Kraemer* struck a blow at restrictive covenants which had excluded negroes from preferred residential properties; *Colegrove v. Green* provides the most recent interpretation of cases which are "political questions"; and *Woods v. Miller* sanctioned an application of war powers by Congress to the problem of rent controls in the present postwar period. The timeliness of these cases reflects the concern of the editor in providing a work which has a contemporary as well as a historical interest for the student.

Excellent introductions are provided for each case. These give not only the facts in that particular case, but, in addition, they trace the previous position of the courts on questions of a similar nature. Numerous cross-references are provided which may guide the student to further reading. Nine editions of a work are high tribute to its continued utility. This edition of Cushman's *Leading Constitutional Decisions* will continue to hold the old friends of this book and will win many new ones.

MAHLON HELLERICH
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Our Standard of Living: A First Course in Economics. By Charles H. Scherf. New York: Globe Book Company, 1950. Pp. 536. \$2.50.

This text presents elementary economics in relation to American standards of living. The author has used a simple informal style in handling an admittedly difficult and complex subject. This approach has succeeded in making the context more easily assimilated by the average student.

In today's confusion and turmoil, when youth must adjust to a changing pattern of living, there is a need for an understanding of the factors affecting the standards of living. The book meets this challenge in its treatment of wise consumption, production, wages, prices, savings, use of natural resources, the role of government and, finally, the individual, social and legal controls.

Each chapter treats a single factor which can be adapted easily to various teaching techniques. Teachers will like the simple explanations of economic terms and principles. The material is in logical sequence as to chapter and organization of topics. Summaries are clear and concise. Suggested teaching aids are limited, but include floor talks, topics for debate and themes and "things to do."

The layout of *Our Standard of Living* is crowded; however, the type has been very judiciously selected and is easily read and forceful. The best illustrative material integrated into the text is the twelve charts and two cartoons which are clear and pertinent. The forty-seven black and white reproductions of photos show a need for retouching, as the lack of contrast in value causes the center of interest in individual photos to become confused with the background. Of the forty-three pen and ink drawings which employ a "natural" technique, twenty-two illustrate the negative or undesirable.

MARY E. KELLY

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The Struggle for Sovereignty in England, From the Reign of Queen Elizabeth to the Petition of Right. By George L. Mosse. East Lansing: Michigan State College Press, 1950.

Pp. viii, 191. \$2.50.

"The purpose of this essay," according to the author, "is to analyze the assimilation of the idea of sovereignty in English constitutional and political thought." (p. 1) More particularly, he is interested in the study of the destruction of the medieval constitution which had placed Common Law limitations upon sovereignty. This is, indeed, a large theme studied in the rather limited scope of the reign of James I.

Sovereignty, as defined in these pages, means "the possession of power inherent in that sole organ of the state which cannot be controlled by any other power and which is therefore solely absolute." (p. 1) Such power may be exercised by a king, dictator, or parliament. In each case the rights of the individual are subordinate to it. The growth of sovereignty, even though exercised by parliament, he believes, has meant the loss of personal liberty. It has meant an end to the "medieval ideal of liberty as freedom from arbitrary power." (p. 7) This freedom, he contends, rested firmly upon the foundation of natural law.

The author has great enthusiasm for the natural law. This was the law of God, of which the Common Law was a particular revelation. Such law limited the monarch and knit him close to his people, making a harmonious commonwealth. However, the emergence of the sovereign state has weakened this divine sanction for the commonwealth.

In this study the author assigns a cardinal place to the study of the Common Law and the conflict which raged about it during the reign of James I. In this conflict one can find the growth of the idea of sovereignty. Mr. Mosse holds the view that "those who sought to stem the tide toward sovereignty tried to rally behind the Common Law as the best remaining shield to protect the liberty of the individual." (p. 5)

Sir Edward Coke stands out as the hero of these pages. This champion of the Common Law, against King and royal courts, "was trying to preserve the harmonious spirit of the medieval constitution." (p. 171) If he took the side of Parliament in the conflict which led eventually to the Civil War, it was because he failed to understand that Parliament was

"itself elaborating a rival concept of sovereignty."

Mr. Mosse has a strong faith in natural law as the sole safeguard for individual liberty. For him the English Revolution was merely a matter of "competing sovereignties." He seems to prefer the medieval constitution to the modern parliamentary system, and the religious concept of natural law to rational law. He concludes his study by saying: "We have tried to show how gradually natural law was undermined by the competition for sovereignty. The custodianship of the rights of Englishmen was transferred from the superhuman bosom of natural law to the human bosom of Parliament, in which all men were represented." (p. 176)

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HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS

General

A series of supplementary reading books that will prove helpful to American History teachers of the elementary or secondary level has been issued by John C. Winston Company, 1010 Arch Street, Phila. 7, Penna. This series is called the *Land of the Free Series* and depicts the contributions of various national groups to our culture and growth.

The Council's Committee on Academic Freedom of the National Council for the Social Studies has recommended "that a considerable amount of school time should be devoted to controversial issues. Only through this study can children develop the abilities they will need as citizens of a democracy, the abilities to analyze a problem, to gather and organize facts, to discriminate between fact and opinions of others and to accept the principle of majority rule."

The final action on this report will not be taken until the 1951 meeting of the Committee.

Six new volumes of the *Chronicles of America* have been published by the Yale University Press, 386 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, New York. The new volumes live up to the fine reputation that has long been maintained by the original work.

One of the terms that is being used quite frequently by educators today is "life-adjustment education." This phase of education is given support by the United States Office of Education, the National Education Association and other organizations. The United States Commissioner of Education, Earl J. McGrath, has recently issued a statement called "A Guide to Life Adjustment Education." It outlines the problems of implementation of life adjustment practices in the schools of the nation as well as some of the forms the movement has taken in high schools.

PAMPHLETS

The Graphics Group, Whitestone, New York, have prepared a very interesting and helpful series of pamphlets for use in the various Social Studies courses of the secondary level.

The titles of these pamphlets are as follows:

- How to Think about Business.
- How to Think about Your Job.
- How to Work for Peace.
- Human Relationships in Business.
- Rufus Woods of Wenatchee.
- How to Think about the U.N.
- How to Get Along in the World.
- The Supreme Freedom.
- Price 25 cents each.

The Bold New Program Series. Prepared by Public Affairs Institute, 312 Pennsylvania Avenue, S.E., Washington 3, D. C.

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